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EUROPEAN COMMERCE,

SHEWING NEW AND SECURE CHANNELS OF TRADE WITH THE

CONTINENT OF EUROPE:

DETAILING THE

PRODUCE, MANUFACTURES, AND COMMERCE,

OF

RUSSIA, PRUSSIA, SWEDEN, DENMARK,
AND GERMANY;

AS WELL AS THE TRADE OF THE

RIVERS ELBE, WESER, AND EMS;

WITH A GENERAL VIEW OF THE

Trade, Navigation, Produce, and Manufactures, of the

UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN & IRELAND.

BY J. JEPSON ODDY,

MEMBER OF THE RUSSIAN AND TURKEY OR LEVANT COMPANIES.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

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BOOK IV.

CHAPTER I.

OF SWEDEN IN GENERAL.

Its Boundaries and Seas. Its Mines of Iron, Copper, Gold, Silver, and Lead. Its Production in Tar, Pitch, and Timber. Fishery, Manufactures, Lakes, and Canals.

SWEDEN has never been a country very famous for its commerce, or for power by sea. It has not, like Denmark, infested the coasts of distant nations, though it has a great extent of coast and many harbours, but, since the time of Gustavus Vasa, it has enjoyed a considerable power by land, and has had several great princes: its present revives the valour and renown of his ancestors.

In none of the neighbouring countries are the people so free as in the Swedish dominions, and consequently, individual ease and comfort amongst the lower classes is greater than in Russia or Poland; but, in proportion as the expenses necessary to carry on war and maintain armies have increased, Sweden, as well as Denmark, of which the extent and population do not admit of large revenues, have sunk in political importance.

Sweden Proper is bounded on the north by Norwegian Lapland; on the east by Russia; on the south by the Baltic sea

and the Gulph of Finland; and on the west by the Categate, Scagerrack, and Norway. The Isle of Rugen is included in Swedish Pomerania, which is bounded by the Baltic sea, Mecklenburg, and Prussian Pomerania.

There are no great rivers in Sweden of any note, except the Gotha; but it abounds with lakes, the most considerable of which will be noticed in describing the interior navigation of the kingdom.

We shall have reason to observe the unfortunate consequences that arise to a nation, in modern times, when its revenues are too small, and subject it to foreign influence, while the sovereign is unable, on that account, to give that protection and encouragement to manufactures and commerce, without which they do not succeed in a country that happens to be behind hand with others. There are some important observations to be made on this point, and there is no place more proper to introduce them than in speaking of Sweden.

When a country happens to be the first in manufactures or commerce, the gain resulting from their efforts is so great that merely to begin is all that is wanted; but, when others have got before them, the gain is inconsiderable, and the competition difficult; and there are various enterprises which cannot be followed with success by individuals.

In fine climates, and where the country is fertile, where nature does much, and man has little to do, nothing but a bad government, corrupted manners, and absolute indolence, can prevent a people from becoming affluent; but, in a country like Sweden, where it is necessary to dig mines, and to overcome the sterility of nature, even in the common operations of agriculture, it is impossible to live without industry, or to be able to procure affluence for which it is necessary; in the first instance, to sink money in undertakings that require a great outlay before there is any return, as in the case where mines or woods constitute the chief produce of a country.*

Individuals who are poor can do nothing, and those who are rich are few, and, if they are prudent, will not risk what they have on enterprises that may reduce them to beggary, and when there is so little resource.

Under such circumstances, unless the country itself interferes, that is to say, unless the government lays some additional burthen on the whole, to encourage certain branches of trade, it must absolutely languish.

* Although woods grow up without care, yet the immense time necessary for a return makes raising timber one of the least profitable employments of capital.

Produce, Manufactures, &c. Imports and Exports, Canals, &c.

The produce of Sweden generally, for exportation, consists of iron, wood, tar, pitch, and a little copper. Its produce in other articles is scarcely sufficient for its own consumption. The principal source of the wealth of Sweden is its mines, of which there are a great variety, of gold, silver, and copper; but the iron is of all others by far the greatest.

We have already described the rapid progress made in the establishment of iron founderies in Russia, which country used to have her iron from Sweden; and at a time the Russian mines were fast rivaling those of Sweden, we find by a manuscript register taken of all the mines by the government, in 1748, that, in the latter kingdom, there were no less than four hundred and ninety-six founderies, with five hundred and thirty-nine large hammers, nine hundred and seventy-one smaller ones, for making bar iron, and other manufactures of iron, which produced, in that year, 304,415 shippound, or 40,588 tons English. The present produce of all the Swedish iron mines is about 400,000 shippounds, or about 53,330 English tons; and this increase, notwithstanding the great quantity made in Russia, may be attributed to the superior quality of the Swedish, which is esteemed all over the world; as well as to their making different sized bars, square and flat, which are more easily converted into the general uses they are required, than that which is shipped from Russia. Great Britain takes about half, or rather more, of the whole quantity which Sweden exports.

The Swedish government established an office, in 1740, to promote the production of iron, by lending money on the ore, even at so low a rate as four per cent. A correct register was then made of the mines, which is still continued. The latest statement of them is a manuscript account, which the author saw in the end of the year 1804. Their founderies are now above five hundred: each foundery has its particular mark stamped on the bars of iron it produces, which is likewise correctly copied into the manuscript; likewise the name of the place where the establishment is situated; the names of the proprietors of the work; the commissioner or agent for the sale of the iron; the assortment each makes, and to what country it is generally shipped; the quantity annually made by each work; the quantity which each work delivers to the government, (which is about one per cent. on the quantity of the iron produced): the estimation of the quality of the iron of each

work, which is variable; the place and province in which the works are situated; the place from whence the iron is generally shipped; and how many hammers each work has; all which are regularly and alphabetically described and arranged.

Each furnace, upon the average, makes but about eighty ton of iron in the year with one large hammer, and two smaller ones. There are some small works, or little forges and smithies, however, which make only from ten to thirty tons the year; others from one hundred to five hundred tons. But the mine of Dannemvra, which was established in 1527, produces from thirteen to twenty thousand tons annually, it has the richest ore, and its iron is of a superior quality, and preferred amongst the steel manufacturers in England.

Of the next importance to Sweden, after the iron, are the copper mines, which have undergone a variety of changes in their produce, and that chiefly in the principal one of Fahlun; the richness of the ore, in that mine, has considerably fallen off; in 1650 its produce was 20,321 shippounds, or near 3000 tons; in 1690 it fell to 10,000 shippounds; in 1751 it was only 4938 shippounds; but, since that period, it has improved a little, and its annual produce at present is betwixt 6 and 7000 shippounds. Otevidberg, a copper mine, has lately been reopened, and others worked, so that the whole aggregate quantity of copper produced in Sweden, at the present time, is estimated at about 10,000 shippounds, or near about 1400 tons.

In the year 1738, a gold mine was discovered at *Ædelfors*, in Smoland; but its annual produce not exceeding from five hundred to six hundred ducats, it has of late years been entirely abandoned.

The silver mine of Salberg, in Westmanland, is the most ancient and the richest of all, having continued upwards of three hundred years. In the fourteenth century it is reported to have produced nearly 24,000 marks per annum, or, according to others, about 18,000, when silver was three times the value that it is now; but, in latter years, the quantity is considerably diminished; so that, at the conclusion of the last century, the produce amounted only to from 1600 to 1800 marks. The lead mines averaged, in the year 1751, forty-four shippounds, and one half; and from 1763 to 1770, only nine. In consequence of the great falling off of the produce, the lead mine in Finland was at last entirely abandoned, and lead is now one of the imports from England into Sweden.

The next article of the produce of Sweden, for reputation, is tar, from whence all Europe was formerly supplied for a con-

siderable time ; and had it not been for the spirit of monopoly in Sweden, arising from the idea then entertained, that it could not be had elsewhere, this branch of their trade might have been preserved exclusively to them to this day, instead of Russia participating in it, and Great Britain being driven to her colonies, to manufacture and procure it from thence in such quantities as even to supply other nations at a cheaper rate ; but the Swedish tar is certainly of a superior quality to any other.

The tar exported from Sweden is principally produced on the east side of the gulf of Bothnia ; the west side produces some. There are only four principal places in the gulf from whence considerable quantities are sent to the staple ports for exportation, and those which chiefly collect and send off the tar are, Wasa, which produces about 10,000 barrels, besides pitch and deals ; Jacobstaad, 20,000 ; Gamla Carleby, 30,000, Brahestadt from 8 to 10,000 ; Uleaborg from 50 to 60,000 ; Sweden producing for her own consumption and exportation from 100 to 130,000 barrels of tar, besides pitch.

The tar from Calmar and Westervik is in very small quantities, and inferior to the tar of the Finnish ports. Archangel is the only Russian port from which tar is exported to England. Swedish tar and crown pitch is higher in price than any other ; as the pitch which is sent from Russia and America to England is inferior to the Swedish.

A considerable quantity of timber is now shipped from Sweden, chiefly to Great Britain ; the prohibition to the exportation of that article, from Russia, threw a share of this branch to Sweden as well as to Denmark. The gulf of Bothnia produces the most considerable quantity ; but the ports therein not being staple towns (the distinction will shortly be described) the principal exportation, it will be observed, is by the ports of Stockholm, Gottenburg, Gefle, and Abo.

In general, the produce of a country which furnishes the inhabitants with food is first described ; but the natural situation of Sweden reverses that system, and therefore we have rather described the means which enable them to purchase food, (their mines.) The climate of Sweden is unfavourable for the production of grain : it is very common, that in ten years there are only two, and at the most but three ripe crops. In the same period there are but four or five crops middling, and the remainder wholly bad. Sweden reaps only two-thirds of what is necessary for the inland consumption. The deficiency is imported from the Baltic ports. The corn brandy, of which the Swedes are very fond, consumes a large quantity of grain. It

is said, that, in years of scarcity, the Swedish poor in some provinces in the interior, distant from the sea coast, make a composition of bark, or roots, with coarse meal, to preserve existence by this miserable food; yet Sweden annually imports grain from the ports of the Baltic: a stipulation existed betwixt Russia and Sweden, that a certain quantity of grain should always be allowed to be exported from Riga. Swedish Pomerania principally produces wheat: but as rye is the grain chiefly used for food in Sweden, she goes to other ports, whilst Swedish Pomerania exports her produce to foreigners.

The following is the State of the Grain imported and exported into and from Sweden in 1802.

IMPORTED.			EXPORTED.		
Pease	tuns or bbls.	10612 $\frac{1}{2}$	Pease	barrels	14
Wheat	—	17741 $\frac{1}{2}$	Oats	—	10
Wheat flour	lislb.	1831 $\frac{1}{2}$	Wheat	—	85 $\frac{3}{4}$
Oats	barrels	6502 $\frac{1}{2}$	Barley	—	677
Barley	—	71805	Rye	—	17940
Malt	—	57718 $\frac{3}{4}$			
Rye	—	175737 $\frac{1}{4}$			
Rye meal	lislb.	244582			

The Swedish herring fishery is chiefly at Marstrand Skiären, (the shoals of Marstrand), where herrings were caught not only by the Swedes, but also by the Dutch and Scotch, till the year 1679, when the fishery ceased; but it was renewed in the year 1753, and at present is carried on with such success, that 300,000 barrels of herrings, and 20,000 barrels of their oil, are frequently produced in the season, but the fish are not all cured.

In the year 1803, the custom paid in Sweden was only on 1764 acums, or barrels, of train oil; 2637 barrels of smoaked or red herrings, and 203209 barrels of salted herrings.

Though there are a few manufactories of paper, soap, glass, sugar refineries, &c. &c. in Sweden, yet none of them are carried to great perfection; so that the imports of Sweden consist in those manufactured goods which nations, whose capital is more abundant, and the arts farther advanced, produce, and its exports consist of its natural produce, chiefly iron, timber, copper, tar, and pitch.

The wars in which Sweden has so frequently been engaged, and the slender revenues of the crown have prevented that encouragement from being effectually given, to which their monarchs have been inclined, such as have produced the most beneficial effects in Russia and Prussia. So that, though many circumstances combine that admit of Sweden being a more wealthy country than it is, she makes little progress, and does not keep pace with the other nations of the north.

The great difficulty with which the Swedish monarchs obtain supplies at home, is absolutely inconsistent with a state of commercial prosperity, it occasions foreign influences to prevail in many cases, and in all of them prevents the country from maintaining its due rank, or giving that encouragement and protection to trade, which, in a country less advanced than others, is necessary. Though politics are foreign to the object of this work, yet it is impossible not to point out, to Sweden, the effects produced by similar causes on her near neighbour, Poland; for we must not attribute the partition of that country entirely to the ambition of those who divided it. The internal weakness of Poland, once a powerful state, and at least equal, two centuries ago, to either Germany or Russia, and far superior to Prussia, invited those powers to subdue and take possession of it.

The system of the present time, amongst nations that aim at enjoying commercial wealth, is to labour actively, and encourage enterprise, and not to be too penurious with regard to the state; for what they give in taxes comes back with double advantage; this has been felt in all countries that have grown rich by commerce; it was a beneficial operation in former times, but now it is become a necessary one.

The Baltic sea has a circuitous and narrow communication with the North sea, improperly so called, as it is a part of the main ocean, unconfined by land. That communication is blocked up by islands, on one of which (Zealand) stands the capital of Denmark. There are indeed three passages into the Baltic by the Sound, the Great and the Little Belt; but they are under the command of the Danes, and, in former times, great contests have been occasioned by that circumstance.

Those contests have at last been terminated, and all differences adjusted by paying a toll on passing the Sound, in which, however, all nations are not equally treated, as will be seen in its proper place; those who pay the lowest duty taking the name of favoured nations, a title, which whether right or wrong, implies that Denmark is master of that navigation.

To facilitate the communication between the North sea and the Baltic, in case the navigation of the Sound should be interrupted, it has long been proposed in Sweden, to make canals across the territories that form the winding and crooked entrance which nature has made to the Sound.

The Swedish canal has long been projected, the surveys have been made, and navigable cuts in part effected on the east and west parts of the country, that will facilitate an undertaking of this kind: a description will be given in its proper place, of a similar view effected by the Danish canal, which has now been open near twenty years, to the great advantage of the commerce of the north.

In the first place, we will begin with the inland navigation of Sweden by the Ströemsholm canal, which joins the lake Sodra Barken, on the confines of Dalecarlia to the lake Freden, and thence communicates with the Mälar, thus establishing an inland navigation from Dalecarlia to Stockholm, which is of great importance, serving to convey the copper, iron, deals, and other articles, from that quarter and parts adjacent to Stockholm. On the whole length of this canal, there are no less than 25 sluices, each 100 feet long and 22 broad. This canal has been completed at a very great expense, by overcoming obstacles apparently insurmountable.

In the next place, from Stockholm, there is a direct communication with the lake Hielmar, for vessels drawing about eight feet water, by means of the spacious canal Arboga, which unites the lakes Macler and Hielmar; this gives an uninterrupted navigation over the Hielmar lake to Orebro, at the western extremity, where the Swarten falls into it. This finishes the nearest internal navigation from the east, at present, approaching to the Wener lake, to communicate from thence with the North sea, by means of the Trollhätte canal.

At this period, however, a navigable communication is making, or completed, from Norrköping, upon a broad scale, to the Wetter lake, as it has been found perfectly impracticable to join it with that of the Hielmar.

On the west side of Sweden, the most important of all is the canal of *Trollhatte*, formed with a view of making a communication between the Baltic sea and the German ocean by an inland navigation, through Sweden. The navigation of the Gotha is interrupted by a number of falls and islands; and, at a small distance down that river, by one considerable fall, called Flottberg's Fall. Various schemes were proposed under different monarchs for the removal of these obstructions, and rendering

the cataracts navigable from Gothenburg, to communicate with the lakes Wener, the Wetter, and the town of Norrköping, suited for vessels of a tolerable burden; and, latterly, chiefly promoted by Sir W. Chalmers and a Mr. Peter Bagge. A new plan was adopted by them, in 1793, for leaving the river a mile and a half, and forming a cut through the solid rock, upon its banks, and by that means avoiding the cataracts altogether. From the uppermost fall to that of Flottberg's the height is 112 feet, which the vessels have to descend by means of eight sluices, each upwards of 13 feet in height, five are constructed close together, and three a little lower. The length of the sluices are 120, and the breadth 22 feet, so that they admit vessels carrying 150 tons and upwards. The greatest depth of the canal, where it has been cut through a rock of considerable height, is 72 feet, and its depth of water 10 feet, the greatest depth necessary, there being several parts in the river, between Gothenburg and Trollhätte, where the water does not exceed that depth.

A subscription was opened; and, within the short space of fifteen days, there was subscribed,

At Stockholm	346400 rix dollars.
Gothenburg	325000
Christinehamn	93800
	765200

A company was instantly formed, to whom the government granted great privileges; all the crown-lands near Trollhätte were, on certain conditions, assigned to the company for ever, without their paying any rent for them during the time the works were constructing, and for five-and-twenty years after their being made complete: after the expiration of that time, they were to pay 500 dollars per annum for the space of fifteen years; 1500 for the following 20 years; and, finally, 2000 rix dollars per annum.

From 1000 to 1200 soldiers were employed on the works; the necessary oak timber was allowed to be taken from the royal forests free from expense; and 800 quintals (cwts.) of gunpowder were issued gratuitously from the royal magazines. The navigation upon the Wener lake was declared free and open to every Swedish subject. On the other hand, the company was bound to complete the canal within four, or, at the utmost, within six years, and to keep it, as well as the river, in a proper state for navigation.

So great was the zeal shewn in this undertaking, that, on the 14th of August, 1800, the first vessels passed and repassed the canal and its sluices, in the presence of crowds of astonished spectators, surprised to see an undertaking accomplished in so short a time, that had in vain been attempted during two centuries.

The canal had been navigable about a year, when their majesties, the king and queen of Sweden, (the 21st September, 1801), were pleased to pass the canal and the sluices, which then received the following names:

The upper sluice, No. 8, being first passed, was called, after the present king, *Gustavus Adolphus*; No. 7, after the queen, *Frederica Dorothea Wilhelmina*; No. 6, after the queen-dowager, *Sophia Magdalena*; No. 5, after the prince royal, *Gustavus*; No. 4, *Carl, Duke of Sudermania*; No. 3, *Chalmers and Bagge*; No. 2, *Trollhätte Directors*; No. 1, *Nordvall*.

The expense of making this canal was only 358988 rix dollars. At certain distances it is widened to afford room for vessels approaching each other in opposite directions to pass, (the general width of the canal not being sufficient); and on the left side is a dock, where vessels can repair the damages they may sustain in their progress. The navigation of the Gotha is again interrupted by two falls below, but this is remedied by the means of sluices.

When twelve years have elapsed, there will be a reduction on several articles in the toll-duties, if the revenues should increase to make the dividend exceed 10 per cent. annually; the toll will then be diminished accordingly.

The principal revenues are obtained by the produce sent from Wermeland to Gothenburg, and from thence most part is exported.

The iron-transport amounts to nearly 100000 shippounds yearly.

As there is so fine a navigable communication, by means of the Trollhätte canal, from Gothenburg to the Wener, the communication might be continued by making a cut between the Wener and the Wetter, or the Hielmar lakes, from the latter of which the navigation is uninterrupted to Stockholm, by means of the canal of Arboga, across the Mälar. A survey has been made to join the Wetter with the Wener, by means of the Skagern and Unden lakes; this last is 393 feet above the level of the North sea.

The communication between Orebro and the Wener lake might be practicable from Orebro, on the Hielmar lake, along

the river Svartan, which takes its rise in the lake Teen, 220 feet above the level of the sea. This lake communicates with the Skagernhulz lake, which is 252 feet 7 inches, above the level of the sea likewise. Thus the matter rests here, to join this lake with the Skagern, which is 232 feet above the North sea level. The Skagern joins the Wener lake by the Gullspang's Alf, a considerable river with a strong current; the Wener lake is 147 feet 7 inches above the level of the North sea.

Another survey has been made to join the Wener and the Wetter lakes, and to complete the navigation on the scale that is already begun and finished on both sides. No apparent difficulties should deter the execution of a work of such national utility.

It certainly would be of the greatest national benefit to Sweden to complete the junction between the eastern and western canals, which are already formed to unite the Baltic and the North sea through the centre of Sweden; exclusive of extending the internal commerce and improvement of the country, it would lay the foundation of independence in passing the sound, in case it should be interrupted, not only to Sweden, but to other European powers. We have, so late as 1801, seen the attempt which was made to obstruct that navigation; and, Sweden will find it her interest to keep detached from similar confederacies in future. Should the sound be obstructed, the navigation through Sweden would, by a moderate transit-duty, produce a considerable revenue, and diffuse a general spirit of industry into the minds of the people.

From the repeated efforts which have been uniformly made by the former monarchs of Sweden, it is to be hoped, even for the benefit of his own subjects, the present king will not delay effecting so important an object. It is impossible to foresee what other advantages might be derived to that kingdom at large; at any event, if not a participation, an exemption from the tolls at the Sound, for passing her own coast, might be one. Sweden should follow the policy of Denmark, which country has, in case of war betwixt them, secured an avenue by the Holstein canal. And, in case by any casualty, or events at present not foreseen, a stop should arise to the navigation by the Sound and the Belts, so as to interrupt the intercourse of the north-west of Germany, betwixt the Baltic and the North sea, then Sweden, by the inland navigation, would enjoy the whole collective commerce.

Such notions may, even in the present æra of wonderful events, be deemed wild and speculative ; but when we consider what has so lately occurred in that quarter, and its present position, as well as that of Europe in general, such a circumstance would scarcely add to the surprise occasioned by strange events in these times, for the mind in general appears prepared for great and unaccountable occurrences.

CHAPTER II.

Of the Distinction betwixt the old and the new Staple Towns of Sweden, each specified. Of Stockholm. Its Localities. Its Manufactures. Its Exchange. Exports in 1803 and 1804. The Monies, Weights, and Measures. Gothenburg. Its Trade. Exports. Fishery. Greenland Company. Station for British Packets. Gefle. Its Trade and Exports. The same of Abo. Swedish Pomerania. Stralsund, a newly made free Port. Packets betwixt thence and Ystadt. Grypswald. Wolgast. Barth. Isle of Rugen. Aggregate Shipping of Sweden.

IN Sweden, a distinction is made in the towns, with respect to trade; they are divided into staple towns and land towns, (the latter comprising also those sea-port towns excluded from the staple right.) The staple-towns have the exclusive privilege of foreign commerce, (that is, exports and imports); while the land towns, as they are called by way of distinction, are limited to the coasting trade.*

The old staple-towns of Sweden are twenty-four in number, viz. Stockholm, Gothenburg, Gefle, Abo, Calmar, Wisby, Malmö, Uddevalla, Marstrand, Helmstad, Landscrona, Helsenberg, Wardberg, Carlshamm, Osthamm, Helsinfors, Ystadt, Strömstad, Jönköping, Söderköping, Norrköping, Nyköping, Westerwick and Carlsrona. The new staple towns are, Uleåborg, Gamla Carleby, Kasko in Finland, Wasa, Louisa, Hernösand, Fredericksham, &c. &c.

Swedish Pomerania, laying on the south side of the Baltic, will be considered distinctly, immediately after the ports of which we are treating.

Notwithstanding the number of old staple-towns, the division of the trade of the kingdom is very unequally divided amongst them; Stockholm is computed to have five-twelfths, Gothenburg four-twelfths, and all the others together only three-twelfths.

STOCKHOLM.

This city is built upon several islands and two peninsulas, betwixt the Mæler lake and the Baltic sea, which properly here forms the harbour in a bay. The largest ships, in point of depth of water, can come along side the quays, which are very commodious, with spacious warehouses and buildings for the accommodation of trade.

The entrance into the harbour from the Baltic is difficult for shipping, from the rows of rocks and the numerous rocky islands before it, which are called the Upland Shallows; between these are four passages, two of which are only for large ships. Hence pilots are indispensable; and ships sailing to Stockholm, are compelled to take the first pilot on board, six leagues and a half from Dalerön: here they receive a second pilot, who conducts the ship to Stockholm, which is eleven leagues and a half distant from Dalerön. At Sandhamn, a small island not far from Stockholm, all vessels passing to and from that city are surveyed.

Stockholm being the capital of the kingdom, and also the first staple town in Sweden, has unlimited privilege to trade to foreign parts and with the interior. In the inland trade it is particularly favoured by the numerous lakes in the country, connected by canals as has already been stated. Exclusive of these advantages, and being possessed of nearly one-half of the trade of Sweden, its importance is increased by the circumstance that it is the central point of all the different commercial establishments, such as the College of Trade, College Commercial, Bank, &c. &c. and, should ever the long projected inland navigation between Stockholm and Gothenburg be brought to an issue, it would be rendered of still more importance.

With respect to manufactures, this city is the first in Sweden; the principal articles are cloth, woollen stuffs, as camblets, shalloons, &c. ribands, stockings, and handkerchiefs of silk, (but not very numerous), silk and cotton goods; more important are leather and sail cloth, some few cottons; but their tobacco manufacture and sugar refineries are numerous and

considerable, for Sweden. Here are also several iron-founderies, a cannon foundery, one or two manufactures of china and earthen ware, a glass-house, looking-glass manufactory; some few and valuable articles in steel are also made here, clocks and watches, mathematical and optical instruments, &c. &c. But generally considered, Sweden, as has been already said, is not to be viewed as a manufacturing country, though as it is, Stockholm is the chief place.

The ship yards here furnish a number of ships built of oak and fir for the foreign as well as coasting trade.

The specification of the exports of Stockholm will give the best idea of the commerce of this port.*

* The number of ships sailed from hence in 1803 was 584.

Specification of Goods exported from Stockholm in 1803 and 1804.

To what Places.	In the Year 1803.					In the Year 1804.						
	Iron and falt pan plates.	Copper and brafs wire.	Pitch and tar.	Deals.		Iron and falt pan plates.	Copper and brafs wire.	Pitch and tar.	Deals.			
London	shlb. 44691	lb. 2	shlb. 37	lb. 10	barrels. 14659	dozen. 11403	shlb. 18796	lb. 14	shlb. —	lb. —	barrels. 3424	dozen. 2303
Hull	30157	17	—	—	1661	4429	25311	—	—	—	21	2155
Dublin	21478	17	—	—	350	2459	10594	10	—	—	173	1750
Sundry ports in England and Ireland	24173	18	—	—	36527	4270	15955	5	—	—	8830	3253
Portugal and Spain	31009	1	107	16	9789	17848	26302	16	8	1	5858	11398
The Mediterranean	1276	13	—	—	417	962	3633	1	—	—	4666	463
France and Holland	13404	15	2046	10	15378	3957	20861	18	1305	—	24512	5335
The North Sea	5810	5	14	8	11415	1073	—	—	—	—	—	—
The Baltic	4683	17	65	6	1945	312	750	14	—	12	479	203
The West Sea	518	7	103	—	105	240	25	11	12	10	57	96
Lubec and Dantzic	17220	15	841	7	1080	239	22455	13	1962	14	5641	445
Prussia and Courland	9982	14	597	11	3289	175	9456	18	703	2	4241	7
Denmark and Holstein	7486	15	554	6	3757	1271	13224	6	307	9	23855	1059
Pomerania and Wismar	15499	12	779	3	2973	1897	16576	11	731	9	18443	1407
	227394	8	5129	4	10364	40535	193904	17	5030	17	100200	29865

Denomination of Goods exported to all Ports.

		In 1803.		In 1804.	
		shlb.	lb.	shlb.	lb.
Small square and bolt iron		18864	3	341	12
Cast and manufactured iron		108	18	16222	—
Ships anchors		741	3	601	6
Cannon		1002	4	843	12
Nails		2335	19	6754	18
Steel		7061	2	—	—
Alum		2602	18	1472	4
Vitriol		557	10	447	12
Cordage		—	—	480	—
Herrings	barrels	2618	—	1109	—
Salt		18862	—	15664	—
Red colours		2803	—	2569	—
Beer		—	—	321	—
Balks	pieces	2174	—	924	—
Brick		—	—	82060	—
Sundry goods	rix dolls.	18651	—	33215	—
Skins		2119	—	1220	—
Wrought silver		4498	—	6646	—
Linen		4770	—	18733	—
Gun powder	cwt.	—	—	500	—
Lime	lasts.	—	—	20	—
Cobolt	lb.	—	—	660	—

In the year 1767, the erection of an exchange at Stockholm was decreed, but never executed; and all subsequent propositions made for this purpose met with no better success. In 1757, the exchange tax, as it is denominated, was granted for the purpose of building an exchange; this structure was began in the year 1767 and concluded in 1776. The sums expended on this splendid edifice were very considerable; and, in order to extinguish the debts contracted in consequence, a tax on goods exported as well as imported at Stockholm, whether in Swedish or in foreign vessels, has been repeatedly increased and prolonged. The last prolongation, dated in 1787, was to continue in force for fifty years.

Monies, Weights, and Measures.

They keep their books and accounts in rix dollars, schillings, and runstucks, 12 of the latter make 1 schilling, and 48 schillings one rix dollar.

They have what they call a specie rix dollar and a current rix dollar.

50 per cent. is the difference betwixt the current and the specie dollar. They have bank notes as low as 12 schillings each. Copper money is used for small change only.

They have also double, single, and half ducats, of which the single, as also the Dutch ducats, are of the value of 1 rix dollar, and 46 schilling specie, or 11 dollars and 24 oert silver coin, or 35 dollars and 8 oert, copper coin.

The copper coins are: double stanten, a 2 oert silver, or 6 oert copper money.

Single stanten, which are called stivers, or witten, at 1 oer silver, or 3 oer copper money.

Round pieces at 1 oer copper money, half round pieces at half oer copper money.

In the copper coin the rix dollar is divided into 96 double stanten, or 192 single stanten, or 576 round pieces or runstucks.

The value of silver coin is three times as much as that of copper, as

1 dollar of 4 marks, or 32 oer silver coin is 3 dollars, or 12 marks copper coin.

1 mark, or 8 oer silver coin, is 3 mark, or 24 oer copper coin. Stockholm draws on London, Amsterdam, and Hamburg

On Amsterdam, at 70 days date.

— $47\frac{3}{8}$ schilling Swedish more or less	{	1 rix dollar banco in Amsterdam.
— $44\frac{7}{8}$ ditto ditto		1 rix dollar curren- cy in Holland.

On Hamburg, at 67 days date.

— $47\frac{3}{8}$ ditto ditto more or less	{	1 rix dollar banco in Hamburg.
--	---	-----------------------------------

On London, at 76 days date.

4 rix dollars 2 schillings specie, more or less, for 1 pound sterling.

WEIGHTS.

20 lb. is a lispound, and 20 lispound a shippound, and
 $7\frac{1}{2}$ shlb. iron weight makes 1 ton English.

6 do. victualu. . . . do.

A last of iron is 15 shippounds.

A last victualu, the standard weight, has 12 shippounds.

75 lb. of iron weight is 56 lb. English.

60 lb. victualu equal to 56 lb.

90 lb. ditto 79 lb. Hamburg.

79 lb. ditto 68 lb. Amsterdam.

MEASURE.

57 ells Swedish make 37 yards English.

79 — — . . 68 ells in Amsterdam.

67 — — . . 56 Flemish ells in do.

95 — — . . 97 Russian arsheens.

28 — — . . 29 ells Hamburg.

38 feet Swedish make 37 feet English.

28 — — . . 29 — Hamburg.

35 — — . . 32 — French.

GOTHENBURG.

The second staple town in Sweden, is situated in the Cattegat, nearly opposite the Skaw, at the mouth of the Gotha. When the French took possession of Cuxhaven, the English packets, frequenting that station, were immediately divided between Husum and this port.

One observation may with propriety be made relative to this station for British packets, that should it so happen that the present communication south of the Cattegat should be cut off from this country, then the conveyance of letters to the continent may be continued through Gothenburg, and from Ystadt to Stralsund, where a regular communication is kept up by Swedish packets of a respectable description. In winter, this conveyance would, however, be interrupted by a severe frost.

Vessels cannot come up to the city of Gothenburg, but are obliged to remain at a small distance from thence in the roads, whence the goods are conveyed to the warehouses, by means of canals. In this town are manufactories of cloth, and other woollen articles, particularly of the coarser kind. The ships belonging to the Swedish East India Company are fitted out at

this port, the only one belonging to Sweden, conveniently situated to the North Sea.

Its principal exports are iron in bars, wrought iron, nails, steels, deals, herrings, and oil from herrings and whales, alum, sail-cloth, East India produce not only to different ports in Sweden, but to foreign countries.

The exports of Gothenburg are the same as those of Stockholm nearly; that is to say, its proportion of the produce of the country; but the goods imported are of a coarser quality, and different sort from those intended for Stockholm, the capital. Gothenburg imports many articles for the purpose of exportation; it employs, on its own account, about 250 ships; and in 1798 there arrived in its port 652 foreign and 688 Swedish ships. The same year there sailed from thence for foreign ports 588, and to inland ports 611.

The following goods were exported from Gothenburg to foreign places, viz. in the year 1804,

77303	shippounds	iron.
7401	————	fine forged work.
2813	————	steel.
28114	dozen	boards or deals.
79512	barrels	salt herrings.
28589	lis pounds	mountain moss.
1266	barrels	smoked herrings.
556	barrels	of cod.
12378	ells	Swedish linen.
10662	ells	sail duck.
2679	barrels	tar.
730	barrels	pitch.
Window glass for 13263 rix dollars.		

Imported to Gothenburg, in the year 1804, 55503 $\frac{1}{4}$ tuns, or barrels of salt, which is 29000 less than in 1803. 148494 tuns, or barrels of grain, or 54200 less than in 1803.

Of East India articles in that year were exported only to the amount of 4964 rix dollars, of fish oil scarcely any. To inland parts was exported 26304 barrels of herrings.

The herring fishery is principally carried on at Marstrands Skaren, or the shallows of Marstrand, near this port, and the produce was

In 1753	.	.	.	.	.	20766	barrels.
1761	.	.	.	.	.	117212	
1768	.	.	.	.	.	151483	

Of late years, its state will be seen in the table of exports. The herrings come on the coast of Sweden late in autumn, when the fishery commences, and continues but a very short time, when very great quantities are caught and cured, besides great quantities of oil extracted.

The Greenland Company was formed at Gothenburg in 1775, for the purpose of promoting the Greenland fishery. Like other institutions in Sweden it is not so profitable as might naturally be expected.

The Exportation of the principal Articles from Gothenburg in the following Years.

Denomination of Goods.		1783	1789	1792	1798	1801	1804
Alum	shlb.	346	330	448	416	653	
Deals	dozen	2041	1113	854	193	403	28114
Goods, E. India	rthlr.		416508	350928	490012		4964
Hemp	shlb.	675	181	610	5194	10626	
Herrings	bbls.	92595	110641	169383	180128	191461	79512
smoked	—	2758	4000	5237	5412	4631	1266
Oil	—	11991	10167	32505	34318	19763	
Iron	shlb.	87726	102495	113154	743386	72829	77303
wrought	—	9799	8211	10668	3955	7431	7401
Mountain mofs	shlb.	2041	1113	854	193	403	28589
Pitch	bbls.	759	208	634	415	5196	730
Sailcloth, Russian	ells	29795		30630		64414	106622
Swedish	—	1865				20862	
Steel	shlb.	989	1766	532	855	850	2813
Tar	bbls.	2783	1400	2744			2678

GEFLE,

A considerable trading town, situated in the Gastrikland, close to the navigable river Gefle. What trade is carried on here is chiefly in Swedish vessels; seldom, if ever, any English ships go up the Gulf of Bothnia. It has a canal sufficiently deep for large ships to come up to the town.

The exports are chiefly iron in bars, and a little copper, and some deals, tar, &c.

The exports to foreign parts in the year 1803, were,

Bar-iron	29493 shlbs.
Nail iron and bolt-rod	677
Iron plates	219 $\frac{1}{2}$
Nails	374
Ships anchors	57
Anvils	14
Copper	33
Steel	3
Tar	791 barrels.
Pitch	11
Boards, 3 inches	25073 dozen.
———— 2 ———	1672
———— 1 ———	32

In the same year the number of vessels belonging to Gefle, amounted to 60, their tonnage 4830, and manned by 531 men.

ABO, the principal town in Finland, with the staple-privilege, lies on the isthmus, which separates the Gulf of Bothnia and Finland. Only small vessels can approach the town, but large ships find excellent accommodation about three miles from it. There are dock yards, saw mills, and various manufactures of wood. The inhabitants have a number of ships which they employ in foreign trade in the southern parts of Europe. First they load their largest ships with fir deals (the chief article of trade in Finland), pitch and tar for French, Spanish or Italian ports and after trading from one port to another as common carriers, return after two or three years to Sweden with salt, or to some of the Baltic ports, with an excellent freight.

WISBY, a remarkable ancient place in the Isle of Gothland, has a safe harbour, but not large. It was formerly a staple and Hanseatic town, celebrated for the Wisbian naval code. At present the port is frequented only by the vessels belonging to the Baltic shores, which fetch thence stones, lime, fir-boards, barks, &c. &c.

Of the other ports of Sweden which have but little trade; from what is already stated at the beginning of this chapter, it is uninteresting to enter into any description; therefore that part of Pomerania subject to Sweden comes next under consideration.

SWEDISH POMERANIA,

In Germany, subject to the crown of Sweden, was formerly completely covered with forests, when the inhabitants carried on a considerable trade in wood, potashes, pitch, tar, furs, hides, salted provisions, &c. but, at present, their principal commerce consists chiefly in the produce and exportation of grain.

The agriculture and general improvement here has kept pace with Mecklenburg, the description of which dutchy is very applicable to this, although of far greater extent and importance. Stralsund, Grypswald, Wolgast, and Barth, are the ports of Swedish Pomerania. Stralsund, being the capital, a few particulars of it may not be unacceptable, particularly from the advantages lately intended to be given to it.

STRALSUND is situated on the northern extremity of Swedish Pomerania, directly opposite the island of Rugen, upon the strait which divides that island from the continent, which is from a quarter to half an English mile in breadth. Vessels can approach Stralsund from the westward as well as the eastward, but by the former channel there is not more than six or seven feet water, whilst from the eastward there is a greater depth of water, by which channel vessels drawing from 10 to 11 feet water can go into the harbour alongside the town; but those drawing more water cannot approach it nearer than within a few miles, according to the draft of water of the ship.

The principal trade of Stralsund consists in the exportation of grain, the produce of the dutchy and the island of Rugen; also the manufacturing of malt, of which it has exported from 30 to 80,000 quarters in the year; of wheat from 30 to 40,000 quarters; from 35 to 45,000 quarters of rye; likewise oats, pease, some coarse wool, wax, and a few other articles. Its produce of oak wood is chiefly converted into use for their own ship-building; and some few vessels built here have, in workmanship and figure, equalled those of any nation.

Stralsund is far from being advantageously situated for a commercial port; it has no river, nor interior communication to facilitate its trade; and the access to it with security is from the eastward, in the progress to which there are several impediments. Nevertheless we find it is the intention of the king of Sweden to put it upon the footing of a free port; the only one in the Baltic, (if Copenhagen is excepted), which can be deemed

such. The following declaration is just issued by his Swedish majesty for that purpose.

The Proclamation issued by his Swedish Majesty, at Stockholm, on the 8th of May, 1805.

Gustavus Adolphus, &c. to the Regency of Pomerania, relative to the Right of Warehousing English Goods.

“ By an agreement that has taken place between us and
 “ his Britannic Majesty, we have granted to the subjects of
 “ his Britannic Majesty the right, during the continuance
 “ of the war between Great Britain and France, of ware-
 “ housing at Stralsund all goods and merchandise, un-
 “ wrought or manufactured, the produce of Great Britain,
 “ or of its colonies, conveyed in English or in Swedish
 “ vessels, such merchandise being subject, if for re-expor-
 “ tation, by land or by sea, to a duty not exceeding three-
 “ quarters per cent. *ad valorem*; and if for home con-
 “ sumption, to the same duty that is established at the
 “ port of Stralsund, as exacted from the most favoured
 “ nations.

“ And this we communicate to you, with our gracious
 “ commands that the operation of it be in every way
 “ facilitated and promoted.”

It is apprehended little benefit can be derived from this port, in forwarding the British trade; if any benefit is to be derived by it to the interior of Germany it must be by way of the Great haff, up the Oder, by Stettin; and Prussia is by no means readily disposed to accommodate in this respect; otherwise, if she had considered her own interest, Stettin would long have enjoyed a great deal of the transit trade of Hamburg and Lubec, to the benefit of the inhabitants of that city, as well as of Prussia itself.

As we cannot foresee what may happen in the north, it may with propriety be mentioned here, that packet-boats are stationed betwixt Stralsund and Ystadt, for the conveyance of letters and passengers, which sail once or twice a week; but, upon extraordinary occasions, an order being obtained from the governor, one can be got to sail at any time. There are two

vessels which are of a good size and well fitted up. In case the communication to the continent should be free only by way of Gothenburg, this route will be a safe channel of intercourse. Farther observations on this subject are made when treating of that city.

CURRENCY IN STRALSUND.

A rix dollar rated at 48 shillings, and 1 shilling at 12 run-stücks in commercial affairs and the royal bureaus; in the other departments they reckon in florins at 24 shillings, and the shillings at 12 pence.

WEIGHTS.

15 pounds Swedish is 14 pounds English; 1 shippound contains 20 lispounds, or 280 lb. 1 cwt. contains 8 lispounds or 112 lb. 1 lispound equal to 14 lb. and wool at 10 lb. per stone.

CORN MEASURE.

One last is equal to $14\frac{3}{8}$ quarters Winchester measure for wheat; oats $15\frac{2}{8}$; 1 last contains 8 drömt, 32 tons, 96 sheffel, or 384 fehrt.

One drömt contains 4 ton, 12 sheffel, or 48 fehrt.

One ton contains 3 sheffel, and 1 sheffel 4 fehrt.

GRYPSWALD is situated on the river Ryk, which is only navigable at the town, where there is but seven feet water; on which account the larger vessels unload their cargoes half a German mile below the town. The chief article of exportation is corn, which, in the year 1780, consisted in three hundred and eighty-five lasts of malt; four hundred and eighty-nine lasts of barley; three hundred and twenty-six lasts of wheat; one thousand and twenty-five lasts of rye; seventy-three lasts of pease; and eighteen lasts of barley;—all together two thousand three hundred and sixteen lasts, or about twenty-five thousand quarters. The whole value of the exportation in grain was 102609 rix dollars, besides flax, in quantity one thousand three hundred and seventy-three stone; and of tobacco six hundred and forty-seven cwts. to the value of altogether 116,850 rix dollars.

WOLGAST is situated at the mouth of the Beere, a small river. This place exported, in the year 1780, three hundred and twenty-two lasts of malt, seventy-one lasts of barley; one hundred and thirty-eight lasts of wheat; six hundred and five

lasts of rye; forty-four lasts of pease,—in all 1180 lasts, or about 12200 quarters.

BARTH exports wool and corn, and carries on the freight trade in the Baltic and North seas. This place exported, in 1780, one hundred and forty-three lasts of malt; twenty-four lasts of barley; one hundred and thirty-two lasts of wheat; twenty-two lasts of rye; three hundred and fourteen lasts of oats, all together, three hundred and thirty-five lasts, or about 4500 quarters.

The ISLE OF RUGEN is close adjoining to Pomerania, and projects into the Baltic; it is separated by a narrow channel from the continent at Stralsund. It produces corn, and some cattle, and formerly was famous for its linen manufacture; before gold and silver were in circulation in that quarter; it had small pieces of cloth as a circulating medium, laying up the specie with the idols the inhabitants worshipped.

Shipping.

In the year 1800, the number of merchant vessels belonging to Sweden amounted to 956, total burthen 63,534 tons, and navigated by 9,929 men. Of these ships, 526 were out or on the passage, and 430 at home, at the close of the year; 118, new-built, are included in that statement. Stockholm possessed 234 ships of 20085 tons; Calmar 43; Gothenburg 168; Gefle 54; Helsingfors 25; Norrkoping 22; Westerwick 24; Wisby 55; Carlserona 33; Carlshamm 40; Malmo 31; Udevalla 24; Abo 16, &c. &c.

In the year 1801, the shipping of the whole kingdom consisted of 974 vessels, total burthen 62,751 tons, and manned by 9,689 seamen; new-built vessels 105; at the end of the year, 493 were at sea, and 481 at home.

In the year 1802, Sweden possessed 946 ships, their total burthen 62,294 tons, including 127 new built vessels, the whole manned by 10185 men. It may not be unnecessary here to notice, with regard to shipping, that objections are made to some of their vessels, particularly by the underwriters. The first is their being constructed of fir-timber; and, secondly, the caravel style in which many are built; for which last reason they cannot easily be refitted in foreign ports, nor enter them indiscriminately as they should always be afloat. The Stockholm and Gefle ships are, however, deemed preferable to those built in many Swedish ports, most of them being of oak, as are all those in Swedish Pomerania.

CHAPTER III.

Of the Public Institutions and Bodies for the Purposes of Trade in Sweden. Of the Bank. East India Company. West India Company. College of Commerce. Of Trade. Marine Society. Company for Diving and Salvage. Remarks on the National Debt. State of the Trade of Sweden. Amount of Imports and Exports of Great Britain to and from thence, from the year 1700 to 1805. Of the Trade and Navigation of Great Britain with Sweden, in the years 1800, 1801, and 1802.

THE BANK.

IN the year 1656, an establishment undertaken by a number of private individuals, was privileged by the king, under the appellation of the Loan and Exchange Bank, which however fell into decay in 1668. Upon this, the States Bank was formed in the same year, solely under the control of the states of the empire : they undertook the guarantee of the bank, and have therefore the direction and power to apply it to the benefit of the country. But private property in the bank, however great the distress may be, must remain untouched by the crown. The management of the bank is conducted, in the intervals between the meetings of the states, by bank directors, three such directors are always selected from each of the three states; but, during the sittings of the diet, a bank deputation, or bank committee, is appointed. Every three years, the state of the bank,

and its direction undergoes a revisal by 24 members, called bank revisers. It was not until the year 1726, that bank notes were first issued. The bank is divided into two departments, the one called the Loan, and the other the Bill or Exchange Bank, each keeping its accounts as separate as if they were distinct establishments, but each mutually supplying the other as occasion requires.

THE LOAN BANK lends money upon mortgages or pledges of different sorts; also on gold and silver in bars, copper, brass, &c. Certificates of money lent to the bank being considered as nearly the same value as ready money: the proprietors, on depositing these pledges in the bank, receive the full value on the payment of 3 per cent. annual interest. Jewels were once, but are no longer received in pledge.

THE EAST INDIA COMPANY was established at Gothenburg in 1731; but their latest charter is dated May 2, 1782. The direction of this company exists in Stockholm, and is vested in four directors. At Gothenburg, the factory is conducted by the directors occasionally, and by confidential agents, storekeepers, and other servants.

The East India commerce of Sweden was never very important, nor occupied a considerable capital; still it is continually decreasing, the English having nearly monopolized that trade. In former times, the company fitted out ships for Bengal, but, at present, their commercial undertakings are limited to China. The ships employed in this trade, are mostly of 400 tons burden. At Cadiz they borrow the necessary specie for investments, and for the purchase of goods in China. The exports to that country consist only in a few articles of Swedish manufacture, and the returns the same as those to other countries from India. But it is not the English East Company that has occasioned the decay of the trade; for such has been the liberality of the English government to foreign nations, in regard to the trade to India, that what are termed the private traders in England, find a great advantage in acting as agents to Swedish and Danish houses. It is want of capital, and of a spirit of enterprize, and of a disposition to push this trade, that makes it languish in Sweden; and indeed it forms no bad criterion by which we may judge of them in other branches of commerce; for if they are deficient in this when we know they have the means, it is natural and fair to conclude that they neglect other branches in the same manner.

There are single houses in London, which, as agents, do more business in one year with India than the Swedish company does

in ten, which single fact precludes the necessity of saying any thing more, and is a strong example and a proof of the neglect of commerce in that country.

THE WEST INDIA COMPANY. In the year 1730, an attempt was made to establish a trade to the West Indies, which miscarried; but, in consequence of negotiations with France, in the year 1784, the Swedes came into possession of the island of St. Barthelemy, and founded, at Stockholm, a West India Company. Their trade, however, is not confined to this island, but extends to America, and the coast of Africa.

THE COLLEGE OF COMMERCE, at Stockholm, is regulated by a president, vice-president, and several members called Commercial Counsellors and Assessors, with a proper number of assistants. It was established in the year 1537, but did not receive its organization till 1651, since then it was separated from the Royal Chamber, and has undergone a variety of changes. In the year 1778, a new regulation was made, in consequence of which this college was divided into two departments; namely, the department for trade and commerce, and the judicial department.

THE COLLEGE OF TRADE (HANDELS COLLEGIUM), is the magisterial or judicial department, to which are referred, and there settled in the first instance, the major part of objects relating to trade and navigation. It consists of one of the burgo-masters or mayors, and three aldermen, one of whom must have been brought up to one of the learned professions. With this college is connected the freight chamber, where the captains of vessels, and their crews, are heard and examined before their passes are delivered.

THE SJOMANSHUS, or MARINE SOCIETY, was established at Stockholm, in the year 1748, for merchants, captains of vessels, and seamen. The object of this establishment is to procure good seamen, to promote trade and navigation, to adjust differences between sea-faring men, and to provide for those sick and distressed. It is directed by five merchants, who are ship-owners, and two captains of merchantmen. As this establishment was intended to apply to Sweden generally, it was not long before different staple towns formed similar institutions; so that, in the year 1796, their number already amounted to 38. These sort of establishments are worthy the consideration of our ship-owners and seamen in Britain.

SOCIETY FOR DIVING AND SALVAGE, established for the purpose of saving wrecks and goods on the coast of Sweden, in con-

sideration of which service a certain sum per cent. is demanded on what is saved. The first charter we find dated November 18, 1734, granted by Frederick King of Sweden, in order to preserve the lives of the unfortunate crews, as well as the goods; to prevent depredations and frauds being committed upon the proprietors, underwriters, and public at large. According to this ordinance, this society is to have the sole privilege of employing persons in diving for and preserving wrecks and goods; any person plundering to forfeit a penalty of 1000 rix dollars for such offence. Ships compelled to enter a harbour, in order to stop a leak, or to be caulked, may employ their own crews to execute this service; farther, if ships are wrecked, and none of the divers are at hand, then others may be engaged to give assistance, but such are considered in the capacity of labourers to the society, by whom they will be paid as such; as soon, however, as the divers arrive with the apparatus, the labourers must desist. As a remuneration for their labours, and the purchase of the apparatus, &c. the following regulations were adopted.

As this institution is excellent in its intention, and for the best of purposes, and only exists in Sweden, we shall give the regulations :

1. Ships in danger of being wrecked, or inclosed by the ice, unless they are conducted into the harbour, or enter it for the purpose of discharging their cargoes, even though they sustain no damage, forfeit 10 per cent. of ship and cargo.

2. Those goods or ships which have been wrecked or sunk, when recovered, pay a quarter of *their* VALUE *in money or kind*, and the owner of the goods, or the underwriters, must pay $\frac{3}{4}$ of the *expenses* of the salvage, and the company bear the other quarter.

3. Goods of heavy burthen, (wood, stone, &c.) and such as are damageable by water, (even salt, &c.) pay 15 per cent.

4. All goods saved by means of the diving bell, or other expensive means, even where the owner has directed the labour *for account* of the society, *it is* in future *only to receive* one-third, instead of one-half of the property, as before.

The customary duties on goods thus saved, and permitted to remain in the country, are to be paid only in the harbour of the district where the loss was sustained, or where the vessel was wrecked, and no where else.

In the year 1739, this regulation underwent several alterations, the principal of which are ;—if the preservation of the

ship or cargo is impracticable without farther assistance, the principal officer on board is authorized to give directions to save the most valuable articles in his opinion, and to abandon all others, whether above or under the water, (these may be purchased by the company, provided the sufferers resign their claims). The salvage of all goods, whether saved by the company or crew, to be allowed to the divers, when the crew are remunerated, the same as if they had been acting for the benefit of this society. The goods are permitted to be sold by public auction at the most convenient place, either in the country, or if they be of heavy burden, on the spot. The goods saved may remain entirely in the power of the owners, after the company have obtained a list for the payment of their demand; the customary duties are to be conducted on a similar plan under the inspection of two officers on oath. For the security of the toll, and other duties of the company, and prevention of all disputes between the respective parties, the goods and wares are to be sold by public auction, after having previously given proper notice to the magistrates of the place, who will thus have an opportunity of making an inventory for the better collection of the duties. If they are removed to another place for sale, the magistracy of each place to be informed of the intended removal, and the fees arising thence to be divided between the two, share and share alike. If any part of the goods be saved by the captain and crew, (for instance, before the servants of the company can arrive), it is enacted, to prevent all fraud, that the captain as well as crew be subject to deliver in an account of the same on oath.

Magistrates and officers are from time to time to examine the apparatus of the society, to see whether it be in a proper state of readiness. The governors are bound to lay their accounts before the admiralty, as a proof that they are prepared to give the necessary assistance, even at the most distant places, in conformity with their duty. At some places, however, a supply of diving bells, and the most important apparatus are to be deemed sufficient. All clandestine sales, whether by proprietor or correspondents, are prohibited; the goods to be sold by public auction to the highest bidder, except those belonging to the captain and crew. Persons shipwrecked, having suffered from neglect, or want of attention, making their complaints before the governors, will have immediate redress, where the facts may be decided on without a formal law suit; otherwise, the most respectable and nearest members are to appear either in

person or by deputy, before the court of admiralty, and answer the accusation. It is, moreover, the duty of the court to distribute justice with as much expedition as the nature of the case will allow. The company is to employ conciliation as much as possible to engage people on moderate terms; and to lay every three months before the court of admiralty an account of their proceedings.

In the year 1741, a new ordinance was published as an explanation to the two former, not in consequence of any complaint or act, but on account of uncertainty which it gave rise to. After confirming the substance of these acts, ensuring to the company its privileges, &c. prohibiting all persons from interrupting them on pain of paying a fine of 1000 rix dollars silver coin. It ordered, that the under-judges of the towns and admiralty are to settle all matters in dispute as briefly as possible; that this court do take no cognizance of any other matters, but dismiss all complaints foreign to their respective functions, according to the 12th chapter of sea-regulations, that the result be immediately laid before the College of Commerce for their information and the public benefit, &c. &c.

Stockholm, Sept. 8, 1741.

This society is divided into two branches, called the South and North Societies; the former extends to Skane, Halland, Gothenburg and Bohus-Län; and the latter to the remaining part of the Swedish coast. In the year 1803, this society, among other additional regulations, received a new tariff for a period of five-and-twenty years to come.

There are various other institutions and regulations, in Sweden, relating to commerce, peculiar to itself, but not sufficiently useful or interesting to detail, such as the Sjö tull, or Sea Toll; Umgälder, or Extra Duties; Sjöraltspenningar, a small duty imposed to support the College of Commerce, now converted to the use of the state; Pässpenningar, or money for ship's passes, according to the size, each paying a certain rate. Lastage, a rate for each ship to pay as for light money, &c. &c.

View of the State of the Commerce of Sweden in 1781, reduced into Sterling Money.

	Exported.	Imported.
Denmark and Norway	£. 160063	66595
Dantzic	22358	33246
England	367292	97762
France	203762	83145
Holland	107103	151583
Konigsburg and Prussia	49689	67580
Italy and the Mediterranean	82166	33170
Pomerania, Swedish	67938	187144
Portugal	125132	40340
Russia and Courland	58229	202781
Spain	23380	14711
Hamburg, Holstein, &c.	128911	38202
West Indies	873	
East Indies	122	10810
	£. 1397048	1027069

The balance in favour of Sweden was 370000*l.* besides which, she is estimated to gain something considerable by the freight of ships, so that the whole, at that time, might amount to about 400000*l.* sterling.

The following table will shew the state of the trade each five years, from 1700 till 1785, betwixt Great Britain and Sweden; and from 1791, each year, to the present period, distinguishing England and Scotland. This statement evidently confirms the observation made relative to the iron trade in Russia, that Britain imports less every year, and will continue to do so, from the increase of her own manufacture. Iron is the principal export from Sweden, which being of a far superior quality to any other, Britain has continued to take a greater proportion of it than from Russia, which she will do till her own has acquired nearly an equal perfection in quality, and even then if Sweden reduces the price, so as to enter into competition with the British manufacturer.

The Amount of the Imports and Exports of Great Britain to and from Sweden, in the following Years:

Year.	Imported.	Exported.
1701	£.109509	£. 70806
1705	205856	46747
1710	173585	27620
1715	165631	37235
1720	191352	111555
1725	161884	38324
1730	191022	15271
1735	213850	25514
1740	180839	15557
1745	250707	30310
1750	187022	16162
1755	200049	19234
1760	193340	13657
1765	234452	49003
1770	136616	58576
1773	161603	36308
1782	163219	56083
1785	203765	65307

ENGLAND.

Years.	Imported.	Exported.
1791	£.223686	£.69899
1792	289626	13078
1793	270101	73051
1794	248031	97939
1795	259120	121631
1796	307720	112388
1797	160612	143994
1798	226910	44236
1799	305525	39916
1800	275597	78381
1801	262202	109419
1802	278410	107830
1803	241472	97595
1804	—	—

SCOTLAND.

Imported.	Exported.
£.44084	£.4844
49063	5261
37293	3373
39752	2334
35491	5746
39616	9125
31420	9901
39093	8481
42357	10664
33682	459
33442	1834
48940	465
47179	450
38867	770

Table of the Trade and Navigation of Great Britain with Sweden, during the Three most remarkable Years, when the Northern Confederacy existed, when Copenhagen was attacked, and when Peace was restored.

Value of Exports to Sweden.					Shipping.											
Years.	Value of Imports from Sweden.	British manufacture.	Foreign merchandise.	Total of British and foreign merchandise exported to Sweden.	Inwards.						Outwards.					
					British.			Foreign.			British.			Foreign.		
					veff.	tons.	men.	veff.	tons.	men.	veff.	tons.	men.	veff.	tons.	men.
1800	£. 309280 s. 11 d. 10	£. 29761 s. 8 d. 5	£. 49079 s. 4 d. 11	£. 78840 s. 13 d. 4	94	10308	591	267	39141	2249	62	8088	422	185	28055	1592
1801	£. 295645 s. 2 d. 1	£. 46110 s. 3 d. 2	£. 65144 s. 1 d. 8	£. 111254 s. 4 d. 10	111	13339	749	218	33955	1893	98	11854	661	164	26700	1442
1802	£. 327350 s. 9 d. 9	£. 33229 s. 2 d. 6	£. 75066 s. 18 d. 4	£. 108296 s. 0 d. 10	174	21409	1141	165	28867	1696	111	13912	785	153	25987	1449

BOOK V.

CHAPTER I.

OF DENMARK IN GENERAL.

Norway, and the Dutchies of Holstein, Schleswig and Jutland. General Observations on the Importance of those Dominions in the present Time. The Trade of Europe at present passing through them. Pacific Disposition of the Danish Government. Of the circuitous Navigation to the Baltic diminished by passing through Holstein. Its particular Importance. Produce of Denmark, Norway, &c. &c.

AFTER the fall of the Roman empire, the first nation that had any power on the ocean was Denmark, but it was employed in an irregular piracy, not in commerce: nor were its robberies confined to that element alone; England was repeatedly invaded, and held for a time in subjection. The Danish pirates burned London, Paris, Cologne, and Ghent, only 1000 years ago, and, soon after, they made a conquest of that province in the north of France, of which Rouen is the capital, then called Neustria, to which they gave the name of Normandy, after themselves; a name that province has still retained, though those who gave it have long lost theirs.

The depôt or emporium of plunder, was then in the island of Walcheren, which they had fenced off from the sea; so that, in reality, they were the first people who created the Dutch Provinces, and laid the foundation of much greater wealth for their inhabitants than they themselves have ever possessed.

We have seen, in its proper place, in what manner the Hanseatic League entered into a plan, by trading towns, to repel the piracies of Denmark, and finished, by keeping that nation in check, until a regular system of commerce succeeded to the very irregular and illicit one of war and depredation.

Roschild, in the isle of Zealand, was the capital of Denmark till the middle of the 15th century, when it was removed to Copenhagen, situated in the same island.

While war depended more on the bravery of the people, and the facility with which they could get the necessaries of life, the Danes were a powerful nation, when compared with others. Some of their territories are very fertile in corn. They, at an early period, understood the art of fishing; and as they obtained resources, by means of plunder, they were very formidable to other nations.

Since war has changed its nature, and great standing armies and a marine regularly paid, are necessary, the power of nations depends much upon their revenues, that is, on the money disposable for public purposes. As neither the extent, population, nor other circumstances will admit of Denmark making great exertions, she is not now a powerful nation, and there is no government more pacific in existence; there is none less ambitious, with regard to external transactions, nor more attentive to the administration of justice, and rendering the people happy at home.

Though Holstein and Schleswig are but a small part of the Danish dominions, yet they are by far the most interesting, and at this time more so than ever. It is just now, through that small but interesting country, that all the commerce of Europe passes. The only packet with a mail from this country that goes to the continent, north of the British Channel, and south of the entrance to the Baltic, sails for Husum on the coast of Schleswig, having been successively driven from Calais, Ostend, Helvoetsluys, and Cuxhaven.

It is therefore of those two dutchies, more than of any other part of Denmark, that we must speak; and next to that is the isle of Zealand, on which Copenhagen stands. Holstein, a neck of land, and Zealand, with some smaller islands, nearly shut-

ting up the communication between the Baltic sea and the ocean.

Of Norway we shall treat separately, as being on the north side of the Sound, not much connected with the present state of commerce; after which, having treated of them separately, according to their situation and the circumstances in which they are respectively placed, we shall take a view of the whole, as forming one state, subject to the king of Denmark.

The important situation of Denmark is but of short standing: in itself, it is not a country of much wealth or commerce, and in ordinary times, it is not in the channel through which nations have their greatest commercial connexion.

The whole of the European shore, from the Adriatic to the Elbe, is now either in the possession of the French, or greatly under their influence, who, independent of their state of warfare with Great Britain, have established a government, the nature of which is incompatible with commercial prosperity. Commerce is now driven, as if it were, by a storm, to the north of Europe, and the first hospitable shore, on which it finds a harbour, is on the coast of Denmark.

Commercial men have been accustomed to pay little attention to that country; it is to existing circumstances that it owes its present importance; but it does not follow, that that importance will be of short duration.

South of the Flemish coast, commerce has never flourished in any great degree. The country is too fertile, and the climate too good to admit of the people following commerce at the expense of agriculture, and therefore to no port of France were goods ever sent, that were not destined for French consumption. We do not call people a commercial people, who only buy what they consume, and sell what they produce, and the French never did more. Ostend, an insignificant place of trade, though well situated for carrying it on, was the most southerly of the places that merely existed by commerce; and the coast of Holland, the mouths of the Scheldt, the Rhine, the Ems, the Weser, and the Elbe, were completely commercial. By the cities on those shores, and the Baltic, the whole trade of Germany, and those immense countries that lay north and east in Europe was carried on.

Now, however, we are compelled to quit Ostend; all the ports of Holland, and even the Ems, the Weser, and the Elbe, are become unsafe; and though France may in time alter its mode, and cease to persecute commerce, yet, while those shores remain under its dominion, trade will never return, or enjoy

its former security. The genius and nature of the people are unfriendly to any such change, and if it could take place, still the almost continual wars into which that country plunges itself, would render commerce insecure under its dominion.

The portion of the continent that borders on the north bank of the Elbe is the shore of the Holstein part of Denmark, and this small peninsula must be kept free from the French grasp, else Russia, Prussia, and Sweden, as well as Denmark itself, will lose all their importance.

Small as this district is, while it remains independent of France, the rest of Europe may be free; but, if that is occupied, then no communication remains with the open ocean. In this view of the matter, we include the whole neck of land and the islands betwixt the Elbe and the Sound; for though it goes by three different names, the northern extremity being called Jutland, the middle Schleswig, and the most southerly Holstein; yet the whole is to be considered as important to the freedom and commerce of Europe. It is the north-west promontory of Germany, and without a free passage there, no communication can be kept up with that extensive country, or with any of the northern nations.

Of Hamburg, Bremen, and Embden, we shall speak in another place, though they are not now to be considered as independent or free, being subject to the interruption of the French; so that Tonningen on the western point of Holstein, is the first port which can fairly and truly be called free and independent, and to which merchandise may be safely consigned; for long suffering as the northern powers appear to be, the day that Holstein is attacked, must be the signal for rousing them to activity.

In treating of Denmark, we shall not then follow the same order that has been preserved in the other nations, but first treat of Holstein and the adjoining dutchies of Schleswig and Jutland.

It is genenerally known that this promontory, or head of land, with the adjacent islands nearly block up the mouth of the Baltic sea, joining the main land by the border of Mecklenburg to the east, where the line, running from the Elbe to the Baltic in a straight direction, is only 50 English miles. The shore to the south is bounded by the river Elbe, and the west by the German ocean, sometimes termed the North sea. The extent and breadth of the country is too inconsiderable to admit of large rivers, but the coast is intersected with bays and skirted with islands almost in its whole extent.

The north-west is bounded by that passage that leads to the Sound and the entrance of the Baltic, by the Cattegat, and a number of narrow arms of the sea, which divide it from the islands that interrupt the entrance into the Baltic.

A narrow part of this neck of land, which has the shortest navigable communication, is at Tonningen, on the west coast, or North sea, from whence to Kiel, on the north-east, a canal has been constructed that will admit ships of two hundred tons burthen, British built, to pass, and ships built in the Dutch form of from 250 to 300 tons, and even something more.

As this canal shortens the navigation, and that a very tedious one, into the Baltic, about 450 miles, we shall give a full description of it in a following chapter.

In the account of Sweden some general observations are made relative to the entrance into the Baltic sea, by the Sound, which separates the island of Zealand from the coast of Sweden, and is of such a nature as to be commanded from the southern shore.

The government of Denmark merits great praise for the planning and executing the canal of Holstein. Most part of commercial undertakings are by private men or small societies, and they flourish best in their hands; but there are others which a nation alone can execute. There is still a third species, in the execution of which all nations should co-operate, if jealousies and animosities could be left aside. Of this last species of enterprise is a direct passage into the Baltic sea, which ought to be cut sufficiently wide, deep, and open, to be navigated with perfect ease; but as nations do not join together to do great and useful works, they are left to do them singly on a smaller scale.

As this canal, undertaken by the government of Denmark at a time when the commerce of that part of the world was of much less importance than it is now, and it is every year becoming still more important, every particular relating to it must be considered as interesting, which we shall give, after having previously described the towns which are situated in that portion of his Danish Majesty's dominions, and made a few remarks on the produce of Denmark.

The produce of Denmark consists chiefly in the fisheries and in the fir of Norway, its iron mines, salt works, &c. details of which shall be given in a separate account, as they are in a great degree peculiar to that country. But besides these resources, which are not common to all countries, there are

others of a different nature, of which it will be sufficient to give a general idea, without any further particulars.

The annual export of grain from Denmark is reckoned to be, on an average, about 500,000 rix dollars, and of corn-brandy for 100,000 more, although in 1787 Denmark imported considerable quantities of grain, and in some present unfavourable seasons largely, particularly into Norway.

In common years, at least 12,000 horses are exported from Denmark; and, in times of war, about 20,000; and in peace above 15,000 head of neat cattle. The amount of live stock, including butter, cheese, and salted provisions, chiefly from Holstein, Schleswig, and Jutland, is reckoned to be about 1,400,000 rix dollars.

The stock of sheep in the kingdom has been reckoned near 900,000, which produce only about 1,700,000 lbs. of wool.

CHAPTER II.

Of the Ports of Holstein and Schleswig. Tonningen described; the best Port during the Blockade of the Elbe for the Trade to Hamburg. Conveyance of Merchandise from Tonningen to Hamburg, by different Routes. New Regulations of Customs for the Transit Trade. Roads now forming. Husum, the Station for the English Packets, described. Route and Mode of Travelling from thence to Hamburg. Kiel, Rendsburg, Altona, &c. &c. described.

AS every port in Holstein and Schleswig becomes interesting in the present posture of affairs, and each has been resorted to according to the opinion of its advantageous situation for conveying merchandise to the continent; some ports are situated on the Elbe, others in the North sea, and lastly in the Baltic; and although, owing to the present blockade, the former cannot avail themselves of their natural advantages, we shall give a description, in alphabetical order, not only of the ports in Holstein and Schleswig, but likewise the principal places, first describing the rivers.

The Elbe gives to Holstein, on its south side, its most considerable facilities, several of its rivers falling into it, namely, the Pin Rivulet, running by Pinneburg, from its name; the Krückaü, by Elmshorn; but the largest is the Stör, navigable from the Elbe up to Itzehoe.

The most considerable river either in Holstein or Schleswig, though of no extent, yet worthy of particular notice, is the Eyder, dividing these two dutchies from the North sea to Rendsburg, and the canal from thence to the Baltic. It has

its source twenty miles south of Kiel, runs through the Western lake, and at the Flemhude lake it is joined with the canal, and so runs down by Rendsburg, being intersected in two places by the canal to cut off its meandering course. The other rivers, and those in Schleswig, are not worth particular notice.

ALTONA is situated in the south-east corner of Holstein, on the north bank of the Elbe, within about half an English mile of Hamburg, the trade of which city it very much resembles, with this difference, that the duties are less. During the last war, it had very considerable business, from its being a free port in a neutral territory, and deriving that advantage betwixt England and the continent in neutralizing property,* whilst it might more securely have profited in carrying on that commerce on its own account. Being so near to Hamburg, it carries on its negotiations, money and principal transactions through the medium of that city, and differing but little in essential points or foreign commerce from it; when treating of that city, the two being so contiguous, one detail will answer the purpose of both.

The population of Altona is estimated at 25,000 souls. It has some shipping belonging to it. In the year 1775 it had 70 vessels, of from 20 to 100 lasts; in 1783 there were 198 belonging to the place; and, in 1795, 154 vessels, being 9544 lasts; and, in 1802, 259 vessels, including those for its fisheries, making 18,770 lasts, and manned with 2852 men.

They embark in the Greenland fishery from hence regularly. In the year 1802 they fitted out 10 ships, which brought home the produce of only 21 whales.

FLENSBURG is the principal port of Schleswig, the entrance to it being from the south-east of the Little Belt in the Baltic. It has a commodious bay, with a sufficient depth of water, almost into the town.

The population is estimated at 10,000 souls. During the American war it had more considerable trade, and its shipping increased. In 1788 it had 218 vessels of all descriptions, manned by 1427 men; and, in 1797, 257 vessels, and 1597 men.

FREDERICKSTADT is situated in Schleswig, between the rivers Trene and Eyder, on the north bank of that river, about 10 miles from Tonningen; though so far inland, it is a port worthy of some notice, for its local convenience: two years ago it fitted out 27 Greenland ships, 15 herring boats, 25 large and

* Neutralizing property signifies for a small percentage passing it for their own.

many other smaller ships. The tide does not rise here more than eight feet. It has about 2500 inhabitants, and some few manufactures.

GLUCKSTADT is a port of Holstein, upon the banks of the Elbe, east of the river Stör, and nearly half way betwixt Hamburg and the North sea. It is a fine port, and its trade is chiefly to Norway and Iceland in the products from thence and that of Holstein to those quarters. It has some shipping and concerns in the fisheries. In the year 1802 it fitted out 11 ships for the Greenland fishery, which brought home the produce of 24 whales.

HUSUM at present is become the more known on account of its being the only station for English packets direct to the continent, north of Portugal, (Gothenburg in Sweden excepted), after being driven away from Calais, Ostend, Helvoetsluys, and Cuxhaven.

This place is situated on the coast of the North sea, in the dutchy of Schleswig, about twelve miles by land north from Tonningen, to which there is a miserable and dangerous road, by land, only passable in summer, and when a hard frost, in winter.

In former times, Husum enjoyed some share of trade, and was a place remarkable for oysters, but the severe winter and weather in 1740 caused the destruction of the beds. The great inundation, by the breaking of the banks in 1717, destroyed its accommodation for the approach of shipping; what little trade it has now, is in cattle and distilling spirits from grain.

As this place is one which many a passenger by the packets will remember, and those unacquainted with it not being able to form any idea of the inconvenience of embarking or landing, a short sketch will prepare the minds of those who have to make this voyage, and proceed forward from thence to Hamburg, or farther on the continent.

The present station in England for their packets to the continent is at Harwich, and certainly, for their security and accommodation it is preferable to Yarmouth; though this latter port in some cases, is more desirable, on account of their being sooner out at sea.

No packets in the universe are equipped so well, or are better sea boats than these vessels, having skilful and obliging commanders, and well appointed crews; this accounts for the few accidents seldom if ever heard of, and that is the more surprising when we consider how they have been driven from one station to another, when they cannot be expected to be ac-

quainted with a new harbour, or a new navigation. After passing Heligoland island, in crossing the bar to enter the river Hever, it is the most dangerous passage that can be conceived. If there is but little water upon the bar on making the Hever in hard gales of wind from particular quarters, there is a tremendous sea upon it, too dangerous to attempt to pass, even when the tide is half out, unless the packet should be driven to do so by stress of weather; the mouth of the Hever is, (according to the weather), more or less difficult to make, particularly in a high sea, from the buoy or beacon being too small at the entrance. After passing the bar, at the mouth of the Hever, there are buoys and beacons all the way up to a bay near to Husum, where the packets bring up from four to six or eight miles from the town.

It is impossible for any stranger to conceive the inconvenience he must experience in landing or embarking at Husum, if their own boat, or those of any other packet laying there, are engaged so that they cannot accommodate the passengers in conveying them to or from the shore. The boatmen at Husum are few in number and have the privilege of taking on board or bringing ashore the passengers, unless the captain of the packet will allow his crew to do it, or that any other laying there are obliging enough to allow their men the perquisite of doing this business: every one will cheerfully prefer such conveyance, with any remuneration, to the Husum boatmen, who suit their own convenience and inclination, though passengers are naturally anxious to get ashore as soon as they can. Were it not for the frequent opportunity by boats belonging to the English packets, the passengers would often have to stop hours, nay, days and nights on board, before they could land. When the packet's boat is either at the town with the mail, or otherwise occupied, this has sometimes been the case.

When the tide is at its height, there is no great difficulty in landing, but if half-ebb, or nearly low-water, it is difficult and disagreeable. From the place where the packets bring up, it is some distance, on account of the shoal water, before you enter a channel of the small river, marked by beacons along its course, not three times the breadth of the boat; if the water is low the oars cannot play, but are struck into the mud to push the boat along, scarcely having sufficient water, if loaded with passengers. For nearly three miles you follow the course of this meandering creek, or rather channel, in the sand and mud, up to the town of Husum, where you are met by the town's boatmen, who may have been too lazy to put off, but who take care, so

soon as the passengers or their luggage are landed, to claim their privilege exclusively to carry up the luggage to the hotel or inn which the passengers frequent.

To a stranger who has not been out of England, where he has every accommodation, and where a spirit of emulation prevails who shall be most obliging, every thing here will appear strange; every one is left to shift for himself; supplication and kind entreaty will get some accommodation and refreshment, but, as to lodgings, if the few inns should happen to be full, by the detention of packets, he must, himself, get the best private lodgings he can in the town.

When landed, the passenger who intends to proceed forward, must go to the secretary, before whom he must make a declaration of his name and character, when he receives a passport, which he signs before the secretary; the fee is trifling: from thence he proceeds to the burgo master, or rather to him first, who receives the like declaration.

When passengers are coming from Hamburg or Lubec to Husum, to embark for England, it is best to get a passport from the resident Danish ministers who reside at those cities, which saves much trouble: these passes render going to the secretary at Husum unnecessary: it is only requested to present it to the burgo master, who countersigns it, which gives this advantage, that you have no more trouble; besides, if it is necessary, on account of the tide, to embark at any hour in the night, on previously mentioning it to the officer of the watch, it procures the indulgence of being allowed to embark whenever it is most convenient, whilst others are frequently obliged to go on board the tide before.

What has been described, is when the navigation is free from ice, and certainly very convenient compared with the inconceivable difficulty and very great danger when the small creek is choaked up with ice, which it very soon is with a little frost, then you must approach the sea-shore where you can, taking a long round in open waggons above or below the town, making a route of some miles, to embark or disembark, according to that part of the shore most free from the drift ice, according as the wind may have been; the going on the sea banks is nothing, but descending their sides, to make the part where the boats are waiting for the reception of the passengers, requires more interest than can be conceived; the burgo master of Husum, and the superintendent of these banks, are remarkably scrupulous, and the latter generally avails himself of the opportunity to obtain a handsome *douceur* for this permission.

It may not be deemed digressive in stating the tenacious temper and care with which they watch these banks, to prevent any impression being made on the declivity of the bank next the sea. The inundation, by which the country suffered so much in 1717, was owing to the bank being neglected, though not for any length of time. The circumstance was this: A very small impression had been made by some accident, it is said, by cattle, in the bank below high-water mark, and a gale of wind coming on, the water soon penetrated the banks, which are composed of the soil of the country, chiefly a light sand. To prevent a recurrence of a similar calamity, where the water is supposed to be most pressing, from the foot of the bank to high-water mark, for many miles, it is as neatly matted and twisted with straw, secured in regular order to the ground, as the matting can be, so that if the tide flows with a strong wind, or if there is a great eddy or swell created, this straw matting prevents the water from washing away the bank, or penetrating in any part. No carpet in a room can be more carefully attended to and kept in order than those parts of the bank where any danger is to be apprehended, and it has a regular appearance like a neat straw carpet below, when one is travelling on the elevated banks above.

To return to the passengers who are at Husum and wish to proceed either to the interior of the continent or to Hamburg, the first consideration, the natives take care to remind him of, is his finances, in which they have a double interest; first, in their charges, and next, in furnishing the traveller with specie or bank notes of the country, or foreign coin, against his guineas, at a very handsome rate indeed: and those who do not know how to bargain, generally sell their guineas as reasonable, if they are going into the interior, as those who are coming from thence, pay extravagantly again for them, when embarking for England, in the specie of the country or foreign coin they give for British gold; strangers going from England, if they can get them, had always better take specie rix dollars, if not, Frederick d'ors; the former are about five shillings sterling each; one of their specie rix dollars contains sixty Danish schillings: they have bank notes which are eight species, or ten rix dollars current, which pass readily in the country.

Husum being the grand focus of the communication betwixt England and the continent, it may be supposed that from passengers coming to embark, and others to proceed to the interior, the traveller going that way may find sufficient opportunities of purchasing a carriage suitable for the roads he is going

to travel, of those who are arrived from those quarters to embark for England, and of course have their carriages to sell. It does not always happen, however, that carriages are to be met with; those coming to Husum generally dispose of theirs at Lubec or at Hamburg, if not, they generally find their way to the latter city; it would therefore always be best for any stranger, going to travel on the continent, to get to Hamburg before he buys his carriage, (unless he meets with one at Husum, which will suit him, and this is sometimes the case), as at Hamburg he finds the greatest variety, and can suit himself in a few hours, proceed on his journey, furnished with proper means and money, at a reasonable rate.

In speaking of Hamburg, strangers will naturally ask, how they are to get there from Husum. If they, by chance, cannot get returned carriages which have brought passengers down to embark, then stuhl waggons, carriages of the country, roughly constructed on four wheels, without springs or covering excepting sometimes a calesh fixed by straps in the centre. For this miserable machine he must pay, at each station over and above the usual rate for post horses, which is 20 Danish schillings per mile for each horse, besides the driver's drink-money, tolls, &c.

The Holstein mile may be reckoned about five English, and the distance from Husum to Hamburg, the best way, is $20\frac{3}{4}$ Holstein miles; at least that distance is paid for in travelling: from Husum it is

$6\frac{1}{2}$ miles to Rendsburg, where there is a good inn, and this place is described as one of the neatest in Holstein.

3 ——— to Remmel, a single house, but middling accommodations.

3 ——— to Itzhoe, tolerable good accommodations, a large old town. The river Stör runs through this place, and is navigable from the Elbe.

3 ——— to Elmshorst, where are middling accommodations.

$2\frac{1}{2}$ ——— to Pinneberg.

$2\frac{3}{4}$ ——— to Hamburg.

————

$20\frac{3}{4}$

The last part of the way is a causeway. Within a short distance of Hamburg you pass the Danish custom-house, where, if no suspicion, for a small fee, you are allowed to pass. In leaving Hamburg to go down to Husum, the officer of the customs

will give you the following billet, on convincing him of the facts, and which you sign and take with you, though perhaps not required, yet it may be useful and save trouble:

“The Subscribed does hereby declare, that he does not carry any thing along with him, except his garments and linen.”

Signed Officer.

Nov. 15, 1804.

On entering or leaving Hamburg, at the gates, if a stranger is travelling, the name and character of the person is taken, and published in the papers.

Those who wish not to touch at Hamburg, but to proceed forward on the continent, and wish to avoid the French, in Hanover, must go from Husum to Rendsburg, thence to Kiel, through Lubec, Schwerin, Grabau, and then fall into the road at Perleberg, which leads on to Berlin.

KIEL is situated on the west side, nearly at the bottom of a small gulf, called Kielförde, in the dutchy of Holstein, on the Baltic sea, directly opposite the southern point of the island of Funen, on the sides of which are the Great and Little Belts.

In this bay there is a sufficient depth of water for any ships, and almost for all merchantmen directly up to the bridge at Kiel, and vessels can with almost all winds get in or out; it is a neat town, has betwixt 7 and 8000 inhabitants: and here are held two great fairs, or marts, annually, at which considerable business is done.

Those ships which are too large to go through the Holstein canal, can deposit their cargoes here; or it can be made a convenient or secure entrepôt for a considerable transit trade, should it ever occur, betwixt the Baltic and the North sea. The Holstein canal commences on the Baltic side, only three miles from hence, and at Kiel, they have in general good warehousing, one three stories high and 268 feet long, so that here and at Rendsburg, merchandise can always be securely housed. It appears extraordinary, but it is so, that Altona, on the side next Hamburg, and Kiel on that next Lubec, seem adapted to rival those places; the cheapness of the one, and the superior convenience of the other, strongly shews, that it is sometimes difficult to draw trade from its usual channels, if it is left free and uninterrupted.

When the Elbe was first blockaded, a great part of the Hamburg trade came through Kiel; but as the goods were to be conveyed by land carriage to the former city, the expense, de-

lay, and pilfering, were all found so great, that Tonningen very soon carried the day.

RENDSBURG, is a handsome neat little town, and a strong fortification, through which the celebrated canal passes, from thence it goes to Holtenau on the Baltic, a distance of about 25 miles, from which place the Eyder is navigated by means of the wind and tides to the North sea by Tonningen. Here is a custom house, excellent public warehouses, and commodious wharfs for landing goods, a large bason for shipping, and a principal sluice, the first on the side of the North sea.

In consequence of the blockade of the rivers Elbe and Weser, the considerable traffic and shipping which continually pass through this place, make it at present one of the most lively and interesting inland towns on the continent, for a commercial mind. The number of vessels which have passed and re-passed each year through the canal, and other particulars relative to this place, will be found in describing that navigation separately. The duties to be paid on passing from the Baltic to the North sea, are received at Holtenau, Rendsburg, and Tonningen, each having a separate rate.

To facilitate the trade to Hamburg from Tonningen, goods are brought up from thence here, and a better road is making to Hamburg and Altona, which passes through Inien, Bramstedt, and Ulzburg, direct to the former cities. On this head, we will refer to Tonningen and Hamburg, for the conveyance of goods.

The following is the number of ships in the year 1802, that entered at the custom-house of Rendsburg, going through the Holstein canal.

With cargoes, 2407; in ballast 1242; in all 3649 vessels.

Passed through the canal in 1801, 2398; less than in 1802, by 1251 vessels.

Grain transported in 1802, through the said canal, 648,977 barrels.

Timber arrived in 1802, and landed at Rendsburg, 74 cargoes. Iron ditto, 32 cargoes.

The population of Rendsburg in 1803, was, exclusive of Jews and convicts working on the fortifications, 7563.

TONNINGEN.—Its population in 1769, was only 1487. The resident inhabitants, in 1803, were only 1924, but on account of the great influx of strangers, the many establishments, and the business of the Elbe, the Weser, and that betwixt the Baltic and North seas, passing through here, it is as crowded as a

place possibly can be, and not inferior in charge and expense, to Hamburg, when in the zenith of its commercial career.

Tonningen was scarcely known to the world, till the blockade of the rivers Elbe and Weser, by which circumstance it has got into great notoriety; the number of shipping to this place will best be judged of by referring to what has arrived at Hamburg in former years.

This place, which has the trade of the continent now passing through it, is a small town in the dutchy of Schleswig, on the right bank of the river Eyder, not far from where it falls into the North sea, betwixt Eyderstadt and Dithmarschen; it has, for the considerable commerce it now has, bad accommodations, having but a small creek, which runs a few hundred yards in a curve from the river, by the town, and in which, not more than two or three small vessels can lay abreast, if it is necessary to land and take in their cargoes there; but the vessels in general, lay at anchor in the open river, above the town, where they load and discharge.

Betwixt the small creek and the river on the small promontory, about 60 to 80 yards broad, is a considerable warehouse; but, upon the whole, there is little accommodation of storehouses, as may naturally be expected here.

There were strict prohibitions in the imports and exports of Holstein and Schleswig, until some regulations were published, dated the 8th July, 1803, on a liberal footing, which will be given hereafter. We shall just state, that goods passing here in transit, (which is of course the principal branch), pay one per cent on the declared value, although it is expected that the real value is given; if not, it is attended with some danger.

The navigation from the North sea to Tonningen is very difficult and dangerous; there are, however, buoys and beacons placed all along the course for shipping. It is advisable, on account of the many shoals and sand banks, to take advantage of the flood. Vessels, however, drawing not more than seven feet water in moderate weather may avail themselves of the ebb tide.

In spring tides, vessels drawing 16 feet English may come up within half an English mile of the town; and vessels drawing even 18 feet have sometimes come up; but all vessels drawing 14 feet can get up without any danger, and lay in the stream above the town.

Small craft, on leaving Tonningen, take with them a clearance from the custom house, which they produce in case of their being driven into any Danish harbour.

The small craft going over the sand banks betwixt Tonnin-
gen and the Elbe, in case of danger, put into Husum or Barlder
havens, or return to the Eyder, as circumstances will allow,
from the state of the winds and weather.

At present, the post, on horseback, goes directly twice a
week from Tonningen to Hamburg, and returns the same: on
Monday and Thursday from Tonningen, and on Tuesday and
Friday from Hamburg. There is a common carrier once a
week.

The trade on the continent south of the Elbe, chiefly from
Holland and the Low Countries, is carried on by means of the
Eyder: the following is an account in each year of the vessels
which entered at Tonningen custom-house actually from the
North sea, whose destination was absolutely for the Baltic ports,
through the Holstein canal, and were,

In 1796		1640 vessels.
1797		1372
1798		1553
1799		1790
1800		1326
1801		1675

The amount of the duties in 1804, is supposed to have been
above 300,000 dollars, clear of all expenses of collecting. The
produce of the custom house district of Tonningen amounted
in the following years to,

1795		258563 rix dollars.
1797		296600
1799		245468
1800		313390
1801		256154

And in 1803.

The conveyance of goods from Tonningen to Hamburg, or
through Holstein to that city and Altona, as well as the toll of
regulations respecting the same, we shall now give.

*Conveyance of Goods from Tonningen and other Places, through Hol-
stein, to Hamburg and Altona.*

As Tonningen has been found, in general, the most suitable
and convenient port, since the blockade of the Elbe, to carry

on the commerce which necessarily must pass through Hamburg, we will just make a few remarks on that head.

The transport of goods from Tonningen to Hamburg may be effected by different routes. All articles of manufacture generally come over land, a distance of about 95 to 100 English miles: the rate of carriage was at first 4 marks 4 sch. currency per 100 lbs. but 5 marks 4 sch. to 8, is now paid according to the state of the roads and the demand for carriers.

Coffee and sugar, which will not bear so heavy an expense, go from Tonningen to Brunsbüttel, about six German miles, in waggons, at 2 marks per 100 lbs. from thence they are taken up the Elbe for 3 marks per hhd. for sugar, and in the same proportion for different sized casks of coffee; but, being obliged to pay the Stadt duty, there is not so great a saving as might be expected. Some goods are transported by land from Tonnigen to Itzehoe, 45 miles, and thence, by water upon the Stör to the Elbe.

Another way of forwarding goods is by an inland canal, on which, with the exception of three German miles land carriage, they may go to Glückstadt, and from thence up the Elbe; this route is by much the most moderate in point of charges, but the most tedious on account of the length of time it requires; but it can be had recourse to when the roads become bad and are stopped, just before the frost sets in. It is of material consequence, even in the end of December, that the Eyder is not liable to be so suddenly frozen as the ports in the Baltic; and ships from Tonningen may generally get out to sea in the course of a few hours, whilst those in the eastern ports of Holstein will risk being locked in, perhaps for the winter.

The waggons employed in Holstein are ill constructed, and badly defended against the effects of the weather, compared with those in England; they generally take from one and a half to three tons each, drawn by a great number of horses, on account of the badness of the roads. The stupidity of the waggons, in exposing the goods to wet, the heat of the weather, or otherwise, at first created serious losses, exclusive of a vast deal of pilfering, systematically carried on betwixt the drivers and even the keepers of the krugs or inns. This induced the Hamburg merchants to convey the bulky merchandise round by water, as already stated, by which these depredations are greatly avoided, if not entirely; and proper vessels now use that navigation from Tonningen up to Hamburg; the freight is from 20 to 30 shil. sterling per ton, and the insurance 1 per cent. in

summer; but, towards autumn, and particularly near winter, the navigation is so dangerous, and so many accidents and losses occur, that 5 per cent. premium of insurance is then paid for the same voyage.

Such goods as arrive by the last ships, it is the best way to let them remain till the roads are made good by the frost, when the rate is more reasonable.

Another way may be better in forwarding goods, when there is no frost, which is up the canal to Rendsburg, where we have observed a new road is forming to Hamburg.

Since the blockade of the Elbe and the Weser, such has been the considerable traffic by land through Holstein, that the following orders and regulations have been issued by the Danish government.

On the 19th of May, 1804, a chancery decree was published, at Copenhagen, relating to the regulations of the road money for transit goods passing through the dutchies, wherein it mentions, that his majesty had, on account of the numerous and considerable repairs of the high roads, which the great number of the transport carriages of the transit goods made necessary, besides the turnpike money already paid at the different established turnpike roads, been pleased to decree for the present, or as long as circumstances shall make it necessary, a farther payment of road money in the dutchies, here undermentioned:

“For all waggons laden with transit goods, going from Toningen, Husum, Frederickstadt, Rendsburg, and Kiel, to Hamburg, Altona, Brunsbüttel, Itzehoe, Heiligenstädten; or from these last to the first mentioned places, every cart or waggon, with four horses, is to pay for every mile such waggon passes half a schilling, Schleswig Holstein currency; for each horse, and cart, or waggon that has more than four horses, to pay one schilling, Schleswig Holstein currency, per mile for each horse.

This tax is to be paid by the carriers at the first turnpike, to the custom-house officer, for the whole distance. Carriers that take away any horse on arriving before a turnpike, or add one after passing the turnpike, shall pay one rix dollar penalty for each horse. The money that arises from this new regulation shall be applied to the keeping in repair the roads through which the transit goods pass.”

New Regulations of Customs in the Dutchies of Schleswig and Holstein.

On the 8th of July, 1803, regulations of duties for the dutchies of Schleswig and Holstein, consisting of thirteen parts, and divided into two hundred and sixty-five articles, were announced and published.

On the first day of December following, these regulations became in force: the object of them is to grant the subjects of these dutchies every advantage which the subjects of a kingdom enjoy and derive from regulations of that kind. They aim, besides, at a fair valuation of the articles for which a proportionate duty is to be paid, and which valuation is further regulated by the necessity of the article, or by the smallness of the privation, should it be dispensed with. The first part of these regulations contains the following clauses respecting the freedom of trade:

“Till the present time the importation of a great variety of articles into these dutchies has been prohibited, as it was formerly in the two kingdoms of Denmark and Norway. The end of these prohibitions has not however been successful, neither here nor in the said kingdoms of Denmark and Norway.

“In conformity with the motives by which this prohibition was repealed in those kingdoms, we repeal the same in these our dutchies.

“We moreover give full permission, that all foreign articles, of every description, may be imported into these dutchies.”

This general permission has the following conditions only:

1st. In support of the porcelain manufactory at Copenhagen, the importing of any sort of foreign porcelain, as well as coloured foreign delft-ware, or imitation of porcelain, shall remain, as it hitherto has been, in a state of prohibition; with the exception, however, of the real China porcelain imported by the East India company, and of plain delft-ware of one colour only; both which articles are permitted to be imported as heretofore.

2d. The importation of burnt roots, beans, or whatever else may be converted into a substitute for coffee, shall not be allowed, because in the burnt state it would not be possible easily to discriminate between any pernicious mixture and the real article. All articles, whether foreign or of home produce, are

free to be exported, with the exception only of *stone*, which is indispensably necessary for banking the ditches on the western coasts of the dutchies. Cattle and horses shall likewise have a free exportation, as well as be allowed to be imported. The trade with Denmark and Norway is hereby left entirely unlimited with respect to every article which the laws of those kingdoms allow to be imported there from these dutchies."

These are the new regulations, instead of those of the 23d of November, 1778, which are not mentioned in the present regulations, but are declared as null and void, and of no force whatever.

CHAPTER III.

Of the Holstein Canal. Cost. Description. Dimensions for Vessels which can pass through. Rules, Regulations, and Duties for Shipping. Table of Duties for Merchandise passing through, also for Warehouse Rent, at Rendsburg, if landed.

THE Holstein canal was begun in the year 1777, and was completely finished on the 4th of May, 1785, but opened in 1784. The whole undertaking cost 2,512,432 rix dollars. There are six sluices, which cost 70,000 rix dollars each.

This canal on the side of the Baltic commences about three English miles north of Kiel, at a place called Holtenau, where there is a sluice, another at Knoop, and a third at Rathmanskendorff, till it comes to the Flemhude lake, which is the highest point; and from this lake, on the side of Rendsburg, there are three other sluices, one at Königsforde, another at Kluvensick, and the last at Rendsburg: these are on what is called the Upper Eyder, and the Lower Eyder is from Rendsburg to its mouth, running by Tonningen, below which place it falls into the sea, betwixt Eyderstadt and Dithmarschen. The distance is about 100 English miles, and vessels must either sail or tide it, or both; whilst from Rendsburg to Holtenau, nearly at the mouth of Kiel bay, upon the Baltic, it is only about 25 English miles, which can be navigated in all weathers, except during a

strong frost, as horses can be had, if required, at fixed rates. The vessels are let through a sluice in little more than eight or ten minutes each, for each of which they pay only 4 schillings Danish, or about so many pence English.

The surface breadth of this canal is 100 feet, and at the bottom 54 feet Danish measure, and the depth 10 feet throughout at the least. Vessels can pass through the sluices 100 feet in length, 26 feet in breadth, and 9 feet 4 inches draught of water, Danish measure, and which, for the regulation of the British merchant and ship owner, as well as the master, it must be observed, is in proportion of English measure for the vessels.

Length	-	-	-	95 feet, 4 inches.
Breadth	-	-	-	24 ——— 9 ———
Depth	-	-	-	9 ———

As this canal may in the present state of Europe be greatly frequented, more general and minute particulars are given for the information and use of those who may avail of it, and which here follow :

All ships, to whatever nation they may belong, are allowed to pass through on the same conditions, without any exception.

No unloading or discharging of any foreign goods and merchandise is permitted in any other place situated on this canal, than at Holtenau and Rendsburg ; but only inland produce, manufactures, and timber are allowed to be taken in and unloaded at the sluices at Knoop, Gros Königsförde, and Kluwensiek, and likewise by the bridges at Sueksdorf and Landwehr, and by the Tilekiln at Rade, under the inspection of the officers of customs.

The masters of all ships and vessels, coming out of the Baltic, are to give an immediate notice of their arrival at the custom-house at Holtenau and to declare their place of destination.

As soon as a ship or vessel enters the canal, then the master of the same is to make a general statement in the following form :

“ I, N. N. master of the ship [brig, or bark] called———,
 “ bound from —— to ——, with a cargo of ——
 “ [or with ballast] do hereby mention the arrival of the
 “ same at the royal custom-house at Holtenau, the

“ N. N.”

The custom house officer at Holtenau then furnishes the master with a passport, according to the statement made ; with which he may continue his voyage to Rendsburg.

In case the cargo of a vessel arriving at Holtenau is either discharged in the whole, or in part, then the statement, examination, and payment of duties of such part of the cargo is to be made according to the royal prescription, dated the 23d of November, 1778 ; if not, an exception is made with respect to those transit goods and merchandise which are landed and stored here.

The duties to be paid on inland produce, manufactures, and goods, loaded within the banks of the canal, and not passing the limits of the Rendsburg custom house, are to be paid at Holtenau, when passing that place.

The masters of ships and vessels, proceeding from Rendsburg to Holtenau, are to make an immediate declaration on their arrival to the custom house officer at that place, who will then, without any further examination, allow them to continue their voyage, on producing the passport they have received from the custom house at Rendsburg ; no further statement in writing of the cargo they have in, will be necessary to be made, as the duties on those ships and merchandise passing through the canal by Rendsburg have already been paid at the custom house there.

In case there should be any goods and merchandise on board of a vessel coming from Rendsburg, which are to be unloaded at Holtenau, then the note received from the custom-house at Rendsburg is to be delivered to that at Holtenau. The said goods and merchandise may then be discharged and delivered according to the prescription of the 23d of November 1778, and the custom-house officer will make out a particular passport for the remainder of the cargo. The same is done for those vessels coming from Rendsburg to Holtenau, in order to complete their cargo, with which they are to proceed to other inland places.

Vessels which only take in ballast at Holtenau are exempted from making any statement in writing.

All ships and vessels arriving at Rendsburg are to deliver as soon as they arrive there, the passports they have received from the custom-house either at Holtenau or Tonningen to the custom-house at Rendsburg, where the duties are to be paid on all goods and merchandise passing through the canal.

The masters of vessels which have taken in their cargoes at any foreign ports, must necessarily be provided with bills of

lading and invoices drawn up in a due and regular form, containing the quantity, quality, and value of the goods; which documents, the masters of such vessels are instantly to deliver up to the custom-house, in order to be signed: it is therefore necessary that such documents should be drawn up in as complete and plain a manner as possible, in order to prevent delay, which will otherwise take place. Those ships or vessels which have taken in their cargoes at any Danish port, may be exempted from making up a specified statement of the same, on the master's delivering to the custom-house at Rendsburg a passport in which the goods and merchandise he has on board of his ship are duly and plainly stated.

The masters of such ships and vessels as have taken in their cargoes in any foreign port, and are proceeding therewith to any foreign port, are allowed a premium of 4 per cent. to be deducted from the amount of the duties they are to pay, which is immediately deducted in the account of the canal duties.

After the duties and other expenses taking place in passing through the canal have been duly paid, a passport is granted to the masters of the vessels for the further continuation of the voyage.

Although the master of a vessel may have a cargo on board, which he is to discharge at Rendsburg in order to remain within the territories of his Danish Majesty; or if even he takes in native produce and manufactures in return, yet he is to pay the duties laid upon such foreign or native goods and merchandise, in the act of the 23d of May 1778.

The custom-house officers at Tonningen are to proceed in the despatch of ships and vessels sailing out of the canal, or entering into the same according to the prescription of those at Holtenau. Those ships and vessels arriving from Rendsburg at Holtenau, without having passed through the canal, or likewise those proceeding from the Elbe river and the North Sea to Rendsburg, are to prepare themselves with respect to the payment of duties according to the act of the 23d of May 1778.

Those regulations are general and there are no exceptions.

Payment of lastage in passing through the canal, is not demanded from vessels under the following circumstances.

1. Those passing through without loading or discharging any goods or merchandise in any part of the canal.

2. Those small vessels which only trade in the canal, or on the Lower Eyder, from one place to another.

3. Those ships which do not load or discharge in any place on the banks of the canal, above the fourth part of their burthen.

4. Those ships which, on account of damage or a leak, received during the voyage, are obliged to discharge the cargo.

5. The packet boats regularly sailing between Kiel and Copenhagen, if they load or discharge in the canal.

Buoy and Beacon Dues to be paid at Tonningen only, to and from the North Sea, by Ships passing the westernmost Part of the Eyder.

	rx.	sh.
For a laden vessel is to be paid	3	—
For a vessel with ballast, or which is not laden with goods to above the fourth part of its burthen	1	24
For an open vessel laden		24
For a ditto unladen		12
At each of the six locks in the canal between Kielerforde and Rendsburg, vessels of 100 feet Holstein measure in length, 26 in breadth, and which draw no more than 9 feet water, are to pay on each vessel passing through a sluice		4

Accounts to be given in writing of the arrival of ships at Holtenau, Rendsburg, and Tonningen on unstamped paper, as likewise the passports; however, all statements of the cargoes, passing through the canal, paying duties must be drawn up on stamp paper, according to the value of the merchandise.

	10 rix dollars cost 2 shillings
	15 3
	20 4
	30 5
From 50 to 100	6
100 200	8
200 300	12
300 500	28
500 1000	1 rix dollar.

Fees at the Custom-house at Holtenau.

Ships passing on their voyage from the Baltic through the canal for each last, (or two tons,) whether loaded or half loaded accordingly

— 1

Ships or vessels having goods on board, which are to be stored in the public warehouse at Holtenau, or take in any goods that have been stored there already, or any other wares imported, in order to carry them through the canal, are nevertheless to pay per last	— 1
Ships coming from the Baltic with ballast, and entering into the canal are to pay, per ship's last, (or for two tons)	$\frac{1}{2}$
Ships which have discharged either the whole, or only a part of their cargoes at Rendsburg, or take in any goods at that, or any other place, and return with the same into the canal again, pay, on each last	— 1
Ships which load any native produce within the banks of the canal, and proceed therewith to Holtenau, or any place further, without entering into the Rendsburg district, are to pay, per last	— 1
But all ships arriving from Rendsburg at Holtenau without loading or discharging any goods or merchandize, are exempted from the payment of such fees.	

Fees at the Custom-house at Rendsburg.

All ships and vessels arriving from the Elbe and the North sea at Rendsburg by means of the canal, either with a full cargo, or only with a part of it, are to pay for each last of their burthen	— 2
The same rate is settled upon those ships which arrive at Rendsburg without taking in there any other goods and wares than such as are to be transmitted to another place out of the public warehouse.	
For vessels laden with ballast that may sail out of the canal, or enter into it, is to be paid, per last	— 1

Fees at the Custom-house at Tonningen.

For ships and vessels arriving at Tonningen from the Elbe or the North sea, and which sail through the canal to Rendsburg and other places, is to be paid, per last	— 1
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Ships pay no more on arriving at Tonningen with a cargo of goods to be stored at any public warehouse, or take any goods aboard which have been stored there, in order to carry them through the canal.

For ships and vessels arriving at Tonningen from the Elbe or the North sea in ballast, in order to sail through the canal in the course of their voyage, is to be paid, per last — $\frac{1}{2}$

For vessels arriving from Rendsburg at Tonningen, in order to discharge their cargoes, either in whole, or in part; or to take in any goods and merchandise there, with which they are to pass through the canal again on their return, is to be paid, per last — 1

All ships and vessels coming through the canal and casting anchors at Tonningen merely in order to mention their arrival at the custom-house there, without loading or unloading any goods, are exempt from the payment of such fees.

All goods and wares arriving at Rendsburg, from the Baltic, by the canal, and which from the canal are afterwards conveyed to Altona and Hamburg by land, are exempted from transit duty, and the same if they go from thence to Rendsburg, and through the canal to the Baltic.

Duties to be paid at Rendsburg on the following Merchandise, passing through the canal, and the rates of warehouse rent, in case of being landed and stored, in rix dollars, schillings, and pence.

Articles.	Duties in passing through the canal.		Warehouse rent per month landed at Rendsburg.	
	Quantity	s. d.	Package	s. d.
Ashes, pot	per 100 lb.	3 0	per bbl.	4 0
weed	per rix dol.	0 6	—	—
Ballast to be paid	per last	1 0	—	—
Brandy, Spanish, French, } and Rhenish }		6 0	} hhd.	4 0
Butter	per bbl. of 224wt.	16 0	bbl.	—
Bristles	per rix dol.	0 6	—	1 0
Coffee	per 100 lb.	8 0	100 lb.	0 6
Cochineal	per rix dol.	0 6	—	1 0
Coals, pit coals	last	10 0	last 12 b.	2 0
Cotton	rix dol.	0 6	—	—
Cordage	shlb.	32 0	shlb.	0 6
Fruit, prunes	rix dol.	1 0	cask.	3 0
plumbs	—	—	—	3 0
lemons and oranges	box	6 0	box	0 6
currants	cwt.	8 0	—	0 6
Furs of all kinds	rix dol.	0 6	100 rix d.	12 0
Flour	100 lb.	6 0	12 casks	4 6
Flax	shlb.	32 0	shlb.	1 0
Fish, haddocks	bbl.	8 0	100 lb.	—
herring of all kind	—	12 0	—	—
salmon, salt	—	8 0	—	—
stock do.	shlb.	14 0	—	—
Ginger	100 lb.	8 0	100 lb.	0 3
Grain, rye	bbl.	3 0	} last of 12 casks or barrels.	4 6
wheat	—	4 0		
barley	—	2 0		
oats	—	1 6		
beans	100 lb.	4 0		
pease	cask	4 0		
buckwheat	—	1 6		
Hides, raw	10 pcs.	10 0	10 pieces	} 0 6
tanned	—	12 0	—	
Hemp	shlb.	20 0	shlb.	9 0
Hops	100 lb.	8 0	bale	1 6
Indigo	rix dol.	0 6	100 lb.	1 0
Iron	shlb.	10 0	shlb.	0 3
Linen, blue striped, in boxes	rix dol.	0 6	—	—
damask and ticking	—	0 6	—	—
cambric, fine & com.	24 ells.	8 0	—	—
canvass	—	0 3	—	—
failcloth	rix dol.	1 0	—	—
Logwood	—	1 0	100 lb.	0 3
Leather, Morocco	10 pcs.	6 0	—	—
yufis	—	—	—	—

Articles.	Duties in passing through the canal.		Warehouse rent per month landed at Rendsburg.	
	Quantity	s. d.	Package.	s. d.
Lead in sheets	shlb.	30 0	per shlb.	} 0 3
pigs	—	16 0	—	
white	100 lb.	8 0	100 lb.	0 3
Malt	ton	2 0	12 casks	4 6
Meat, salted	100 lb.	6 0	bbl.	0 6
Oil, train	bbl.	12 0	} cask	1 0
linseed	100 lb.	8 0		
hempseed	—	2 0		
rapeseed	—	2 0		
Oakum of every kind	shlb.	10 0	shlb.	1 0
Paper of all kind	bale	14 0	bale	0 3
Pepper			100 lb.	0 9
Pitch	bbl.	4 0	bbl.	0 6
Rice	100 lb.	8 0	500 lb.	2 0
Rum	ank.	5 0	hhd.	4 0
Saltpetre	100 lb.	8 0	100 lb.	0 3
Salt of every kind	bbl.	3 0	last	2 0
Sugar, white loaf	} 100 lb.	10 0	} 100 lb.	} 1 0
brown candied		8 0		
raw		—		
Skins	10 pcs.	3 0	10 pcs.	0 3
Silk of all kinds	rix dol.	0 6	—	—
Satin and taffety	ell	4 0	—	—
Seeds, hemp	bbl.	4 0	bbl.	0 6
flax	—	6 0	—	0 6
mustard	—	8 0	—	0 6
Tar	—	4 0	—	0 6
Turpentine	rix dol.	1 0	—	—
Tobacco in leaves	100 lb.	6 0	1000 lb.	5 0
manufactured	—	8 0	—	—
Tallow	—	6 0	shlb.	9 0
Tin, wrought and unwrought	shlb.	24 0	—	0 3
Tea, all kinds	rix dol.	0 6	—	—
Wool	shlb.	24 0	—	2 0
Woolen goods				
baize, English	24 ells.	4 0	—	—
Scottish, dyed	—	6 0	—	—
flannel	—	2 6	—	—
shalloon	—	5 0	—	—
camlet	—	2 6	—	—
calimanco	—	3 0	—	—
kersey, English	—	5 0	} hhd.	2 0
Wine, Malaga	} ohm.	48 0		
Spanish and Hungary		—	—	—
Yarn, flaxen of all kind	rix dol.	0 6	shlb.	1 0
cotton	—	0 6	—	—

The following particulars of vessels, which have gone through the Holstein canal in each year, will shew nearly the share of trade which passes through it, to and from the Baltic; likewise the proportion of foreign vessels to those belonging to the Danish dominions. It will be seen, that upwards of one-half of the vessels which pass through this canal are belonging to foreigners, and these generally go to and from Embden and Holland, chiefly under Prussian colours, and many of them, no doubt, Prussian vessels, which convey produce from the ports of that kingdom in the Baltic, to Embden and other places, the number of English vessels which avail themselves of this navigation, are few, comparatively speaking; but since the blockade of the Elbe, they have increased, as they have taken cargoes out to Tonningen, and, for want of back freights, have proceeded through to the Baltic, loaded products from thence, and returned by way of Elsineur. Vessels pass through, in ballast, no doubt in the same proportion as at Elsineur, at which place, if the Dutch and French ships have not appeared upon the list as vessels passing that way, we may infer from the increase of numbers which have the last two years gone through the Holstein canal, that the Dutch in particular, have carried on their trade through this channel, and the French have also participated in that commerce.

The commerce that is carried on by this canal has been on the increase. In 1803, stating each month (except January and February) it being navigable from March to December that year, (which is not always the case.) The vessels which passed through were in

January		—
February		—
March		309
April		434
May		469
June		483
July		646
August		503
September		390
October		373
November		169
December		57
		—
Total		3833
		—

CHAPTER IV.

Of the Island of Zealand.—Its Position.—Remarks on its Attack and the Confederacy in 1801.—Copenhagen, the Capital of Denmark.—Its Localities.—Its Trade and Navigation.—The Transit Trade, Monies, Weights, and Measures.

THE position of the island of Zealand in which Copenhagen, the capital of Denmark stands, is better understood, by inspecting the chart, than by any description. It is placed on the entrance into the Baltic. It is separated on the north from Sweden by the Sound, and from Jutland and Holstein on the west and south by the Great Belt and a number of islands of various sizes.

At the entrance point on the north-west of Zealand is the castle of Cronenburg, which is exactly opposite to Helsenburg, on the Swedish coast, and within about a mile of Elsinour. These two opposite fortifications command the Sound, and all the ships that pass are liable to be interrupted by them.

The Great Belt, on the other side of Zealand, is not so narrow as the Sound, but the islands on all sides, and the circuitous navigation both before it is entered and after having passed it, render the passage by the Sound preferable for ships sailing out of or into the Baltic sea.

Copenhagen is undoubtedly the best sea port in the island; the harbour is excellent, and will admit ships of large burthen,

The affair of 1801, which took place here, and terminated the confederacy of the northern nations, is a proof of its strong but dangerous position, in case of hostilities with a nation that has superior power. Denmark, though of the three powers the most pacifically inclined, alone sustained the attack, and suffered in the cause, owing merely to local situation, and not any wish on the part of the British to revenge the quarrel on Denmark. It happened, on this occasion, as on many others, that the parties least disposed to quarrel were the most deeply involved, which affords a good reason for that power in future, acting from its own conviction, and in consequence of its own feelings, without permitting itself to be induced or instigated by any other.

The coalition to which that memorable event put a final termination, was in itself so ill founded, and fraught with such fatal consequences to those concerned, if it had proceeded, that we can never mention it without making some remarks; and it will be seen by the exports of all the three powers who were parties to the coalition against England, that they are gainers by hostilities between this country and France; and therefore, if even guided by interest, and if justice were out of the question, they should not be displeased, if they suffer a little inconvenience by an event, from which they gain a great deal.

COPENHAGEN.

This city is said to have had its foundation in 1169 and it had already, in 1242, arrived to such a degree of consequence as to excite the jealousy of the Lubeccers, who, in that year, destroyed it; in 1319, it had so far recovered itself, as to be made a city, when it was again successively attacked and destroyed in the years 1361 and 1369, by the Hanseatic League. Roschild had been the ancient capital of Denmark, but that title was transferred to the city of Copenhagen in the year 1443, since which time it has continued the capital, and its privileges were further confirmed and completely enlarged, so that in the year 1515, it was made the staple port of all the Danish dominions, since which period it has progressively gained in trade, and during the last two wars, in which England has been engaged, very much increased in commerce and wealth; so much so, that the population of Copenhagen, in the year 1769, was only reckoned 70,495; in 1799, it had encreased to

83,063; and by the latest accounts, to 100,975 souls, including the garrison, containing 14,198 men.

This city has every convenience for carrying on a considerable commerce; its harbour is a very commodious one, with a sufficient depth of water for large ships, and good warehouses, alongside of which they generally discharge their cargoes in the city.

The trade of Copenhagen consists chiefly in the transit of goods. The island of Zealand, in which it stands, produces nothing in sufficient quantity for exportation, beyond its own consumption, and scarcely sufficient for that. The export trade from Denmark is trifling, except to their own East and West India possessions, and that chiefly in goods from other parts.

The imports from Great Britain to Copenhagen, consist principally in manufactures of different sorts; woollen cloths of all kinds, printed cottons, and some few other articles are prohibited, but many of these are landed upon what is called transit UPLAG, paying a very small transit duty.

The principal trade is to and from the East and West Indies, and of late years considerable importations from America, consisting chiefly in East and West India produce, most of which is landed on the transit uplag, every thing being allowed to be landed and sold for exportation; Sweden and other ports in the Baltic, receiving annually great supplies. The East India Company have the sole privilege of trading to China, from whence annually two ships arrive. Private merchants are allowed to trade to India, on paying the company 10 per cent. duty; so that the principal trade is carried on by private merchants, the company having only two or three ships annually to other ports.

On account of the trade of Copenhagen, being of the nature of a free port, no tables can be given of the imports and exports from hence; therefore, the only method to judge of it in some measure, and to determine whether it has increased so rapidly as has been stated, is to give the number of shipping which has arrived there at different periods.

The Number of the Vessels of different Sorts employed in Trade, belonging to Copenhagen only, were

In 1745	.	.	.	.	103
1754	.	.	.	.	90
1758	.	.	.	.	146
1759	.	.	.	.	189
1760	.	.	.	.	202
1775	.	.	.	.	157
1780	.	.	.	.	230
1782	.	.	.	.	317
1788	.	.	.	.	250
1792	.	.	.	.	219
1794	.	.	.	.	270
1797	.	.	.	.	286

To shew the number of vessels, in the aggregate in the trade of Copenhagen, in 1793 :

		Vessels.	Laftage.
Arrived	.	3560	82825
Sailed	.	3648	87181

The number of Ships arrived in 1798 at Copenhagen.

From foreign places in Europe	2066
Danish	2490
Norwegian	414
From Schleswig and Holstein	912
East and West Indies	92
Total	5974

In 1798 the number of merchant ships belonging to this city was 338, and 21683 lasts; the number of East Indiamen included in this statement was 10, being 3401 commercial lasts.

To shew more distinctly the nature of the whole trade of Copenhagen, a list follows for the year 1803 of the shipping which arrived and sailed : it will be observed that Copenhagen has considerable traffic within her own possessions, being the medium betwixt Norway and the dutchies and the islands on

the side of the Baltic, amounting to no less than 3460 vessels in the domestic trade, but it will naturally be concluded that many must be moderate sized.

From the numerous advantages which Copenhagen holds out for a transit or free port, considering the situation of Holland, Hamburg, and the North of Europe, it is a matter of no small surprise that she has not a still greater share of that traffic.

The Ships arrived at Copenhagen in 1803, were from

West India colonies	16
Britain and Ireland	43
Finland	2
East Indies	14
Surinam	5
Martinique	1
China	1
North America and West Indies	40
Greenland	5
Faro Islands	4
Isles of France	5
Guadaloupe	2
Coast of Guinea	2
Domestic harbours and trade	3460
Total	3600

Ships sailed the same Year.

West India colonies	36
Greenland	8
Java islands	5
Great Britain and Ireland	39
Denmark	4
Domestic harbours and trade	3409
Total	3501

*Amount of the Consumption of Pit Coals, in Copenhagen, in the
Years 1789, 1790, and 1791.*

		Imported and paid duty for.	Imported for the use of the sugar refine- ries, free of duty.	Total imported
In the year 1789	lasts	6770	2026	8796
1790	—	8877	2121	10999
1791	—	7175	1814	8989

Monies, Weights, and Measures.

MONIES.

Books and accounts are kept generally in rix dollars, marks, and schillings; 16 schillings make one mark, and 6 marks one rix dollar; or in rix dollars, schillings, and pence; reckoning 12 of the latter to a schilling, and 148 schillings to a rix dollar.

The payments are made in old Danish bank notes, of 1, 5, 10, 50, and 100 rix dollars each; the small coin in circulation are 4, 2, and 1 schilling pieces, for general use, and the specie dollar, which is in weight and value exactly the same as the Hamburg banco dollar.

There are two banks established, one is the National or King's bank, from which only the paper current rix dollars are issued; the other is the specie bank, divided into 6000 shares of 400 dollars each, from which was issued specie notes, at an agio of 25 per cent. better than currency, and for which specie might be had at choice; but of late years the agio has risen from 45 to 49 per cent. fluctuating every post day; in consequence of which no specie notes are now in circulation, so that the current rix dollar is the only money now in use.

The bank lends money on goods and merchandise as well as discounting bills. For further particulars we refer to the institutions, &c.

Copenhagen draws bills in the following manner, and on the following places :

On Hamburg, in banco, at 2 months date at present, a $144\frac{1}{2}$ rxd. old Danish bank notes, for 100 rxd. banco ; as also 14 days sight, 8 days sight ; and also at Vista at 2 to $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. higher for the same.

On Amsterdam, in Holland currency, 2 months date, at $133\frac{1}{4}$ rxd. old Danish bank notes, for 100 rxd. Holland currency, and 14 days sight, 8 days sight, or Vista, at 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. higher.

On London, 2 mo. date, at 6 rxd. 26 sch. old Danish per pound sterling, and 14 days sight, or shorter, for 4 to 5 sch. per £. higher, and often at three months date drawn on London, at 2s. lower likewise, with half per cent. frequently three-quarters ; also 1 per cent. lower, according as the discount is at Hamburg or Holland, on these places, they draw sometimes at 3 days sight.

On Paris, at present, there seldom is an exchange, but it would be about $24\frac{1}{4}$ Danish bank notes per franc, at 2 months, and on a shorter or longer usance, according as the discount is in France.

The exchanges on England, Holland, and France are regulated according to the exchange of each post day, in Hamburg, to those places ; and the paper here on Hamburg is paid in banco, according as it turns out, the banker pays here, or sells, accordingly, as advantageously as he can.

WEIGHTS.

The weights of Denmark are in shippounds, lispounds, and pounds.

16 pound is one lispound, and 20 lispound one shippound, or 320lb. which is betwixt 11 and 12 per cent. heavier than the English.

MEASURES.

Every article is measured by the barrel, which is nearly equal to four Winchester bushels.

18 barrels is one last of coals ; the coal barrel is larger than the grain barrel, the former being 176 quarts, whilst the latter is only 144. Salt has 25 barrels to a last.

Long measure is here by the ell of 2 feet, which ell is about three-quarters of an inch more than two English feet, and by this ell every thing is measured.

CHAPTER V.

Of Elsinour. Remarks on the Toll paid there. The Wars it formerly occasioned. Prudence of Merchants fixing with Agents there to transact their Business. Table of Duties on Merchandise passing through the Sound.

THOUGH the duties paid by ships on passing the Sound, now form a considerable branch of the revenues of Denmark, yet they have been the cause of many quarrels, and cost more money than, if sunk at a very low interest, would have produced a much better revenue. When nations act through animosity and a spirit of rule, they seldom calculate according to the maxims of profit and loss.

From the year 1348 till 1659, that is, for 311 years, the Sound duties caused continual disturbances, and besides other evils, such as the destruction of the Danish fleet repeatedly, those quarrels occasioned Copenhagen to be burnt twice. The English, Dutch, and French, at last, in 1659, entered into an union to compel the Danes to fix those duties permanently, on a reasonable footing; yet, even that did not lay the matter to rest entirely, for there have been contests with Sweden on the same point; and, so late as 1720, there was still a misunderstanding; and with the Dutch in 1731.

In 1653, that is, a century and a half ago, it was farmed by the Dutch, at a sum equal to 35,000*l.* which was equal to about 100,000*l.* at the present time.

It is not necessary to enter into any discussion with respect to the right by which this toll is demanded, or why Denmark has any greater or better title to it than Sweden; for,

though it has often been disputed, it has so long been submitted to, that time appears to have settled the question of right.

The Danes at one time claimed an exclusive privilege of navigating the baltic, as the Genoese did the Black sea; that is to say, of preventing all others from doing the same without leave obtained; and so far did the Danes carry this idea of power, as to demand a toll from the Russia company for passing between Norway and Iceland, on the voyage to Archangel; one hundred rose nobles was the sum demanded in lieu of Sound dues, in passing to Narva; but Queen Elizabeth, in the last year of her glorious reign, objected to this, and there is not, in the diplomacy of the present times, any arguments urged with greater acuteness, more method and wisdom, or moderation, than those used upon that occasion. However absurd the doctrine may be held, yet it is certain, that long possession not only implies a right to enjoy, but in many cases constitutes a right.

Elseneur may be ranked the second place of trade in the Danish dominions, if not the first. The greatest part of the trade of the Baltic passes and repasses, and becomes tributary here, and entirely so to the Danish dominions; for the merchandise which does not pass by Elseneur, goes through the canal of Holstein; and what does not pass through those two channels, goes by way of Lubec, which is but trifling, yet still pays a toll, if by land carriage, in passing the skirts of Holstein, if to Hamburg or other places; so that the whole of the Baltic trade is tributary to Denmark. A canal through Sweden, which we have already mentioned in its proper place, might, in case of any interruption or unforeseen change, enable that government to participate in the advantage.

Elseneur is estimated to have about 7000 inhabitants; it has no harbour, but ships can bring up near to the town; when the masters go on shore in boats belonging to the place, which are of a particular construction and so skilfully managed that few accidents have ever been known to happen.

On the masters of the vessels landing, a general spirit of emulation prevails amongst the agents, who shall have the clearance of his ship and the cargo, even if he is a stranger, finding no difficulty to obtain credit on this score: many of the houses in the Baltic charges the Sound duties in the invoices, and have their own agents at Elseneur to clear all the merchandise shipped by them; if this is not the case, the merchants at Elseneur then draw upon the owners or agents where the goods are directed or addressed: but for houses in Great Britain,

having general concerns to the Baltic, it would be better if they fixed with an agent at Elsineur to transact all their business by special appointment, which not only prevents others interfering, and saves some expense, but such agent will, in case of any accident to the ship in the Baltic, by loss or otherwise, always give the captain precautionary directions, by which every thing necessary will be done, without an useless correspondence to England, to avoid bottomry, &c. &c.

The net duties collected at the Sound may average annually 600,000 rix dollars; the fees of collecting light money, and for the different lights on the coast, are paid separately by the ships, as port charges; and these are on the coasts as high as the Skaw, on the northernmost part of Jutland, and to the east again of Copenhagen, even some on the Swedish coast.

The Sound duties are charged in specie, which is nominally bearing a fixed agio of $19\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on specie rix dollars, reduced to crowns, by 6 stivers to every specie rix dollar, and by 3 stivers for every crown dollar. The accounts of the Sound duties are kept in rix dollars and stivers, and were fixed by treaty, of which a tariff follows; such articles as do not appear therein, pay, in privileged ships, (that is, those nations having a treaty of commerce), 1 per cent. on the value by the cocket, or other custom-house document, or original invoice; and in unprivileged ships, $1\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. but where no authenticated value appears, the custom-house officers have the power of fixing it as they think proper, from which it is almost impossible to get any allowance or deduction afterwards, however overcharged it may be.

The importation duty is half as much more in uninprivileged as in those belonging to privileged nations, which are at present the British, Dutch, French, Russian, Spanish, Portuguese, Hamburgers, Genoese, Tripolian, Tunisian, and Sicilian; we find Sweden exempt, although her coast contributes to make this streight, and comes within four English miles of it.

Elsineur lays east of Cronenburg castle, which is a fortress upon a small promontory, from whence, directly opposite to the Swedish coast, or to Helsinburg, the distance is about four English miles; this is sometimes frozen over in severe winters, when there is a perfect communication by sledge way.

One established custom is invariably adhered to here, in the intercourse betwixt Denmark and Sweden; if going from the former to the latter kingdom, passengers must absolutely go in a Danish boat; if from Sweden, they pass over to Denmark, a Swedish boat must convey the passenger; this passage, by the

boats of both nations, is frequently made in less than half an hour.

From Elsineur to Cronenburg castle, and Hamlet's gardens, there are delightful picturesque views, and none more so than sailing from Elsineur to Copenhagen.

DUTIES PAYABLE AT THE SOUND.

In 1687, the King issued a Placard, ordering the following Fees to be paid at the Sound.

	Rix dolls.
To the director of the customs	$\frac{1}{2}$
———— four chamberlains	1
———— seal-presser, for stamped paper and his trouble	$\frac{1}{2}$
———— toll-inspector, for himself and three boatmen	1

By another Placard, in 1701.

To the director of the customs	
———— four chamberlains	1
———— seal-presser, for stamped paper and his trouble	$\frac{1}{2}$

The translator extorts eight stivers for each cocket.

Such of the above fees as are now taken, some of the commissioners charge in crown money, which is apprehended to be an abuse, as they ought only to be charged in current money.

To the before-mentioned should be added :

	Laden.	In ballast.
Light-money for ship and cargo, in crowns	5 3	2 25
Rix dolls.		
Pass, seal, writing-money, and fees	2 12	2 12
Guard-ship both ways, 4 stivers each time.		
British poor, upwards of 24 stivers.		
Commission	0 24	0 24

Add 3 stivers on each rix dollar crown, to make it current money, and observe that, in this and all the following duties, 41 stivers make the rix dollar.

N. B. All masters are allowed four per cent. out of the duties paid on their cargoes, both upwards and downwards.

Duties payable at the Sound on the principal Articles commonly passing through.

	Rix d.	Sti.
Ale or beer, the 8 hhds. at $4\frac{1}{2}$	0	36
Alegar	0	36
Alum, the shippound	0	12
Almonds, the 100lb.	0	9
Apples, the last of 22 barrels	0	12
Apothecaries drugs, the lispound, valued at 36 rix dollars	0	18
Aniseed, the 100lb.	0	9
Antimony, the shippound	0	12
Anchor and locks, the shocks of 60	1	0
Argol, the shippound	0	6
Arsenic, the shippound	0	12
Ashes, weed, the last of 12 barrels, or 12 ship- pound	0	12
pot, the last of 12 barrels or 12 shippound	1	0
Auri pigmentum, the 100 lb.	0	9
Bacon, the shippound	0	9
Balks, great, of oak, the piece	0	3
fir, 4 ditto	0	6
small, ditto, 20 ditto	0	13
Baize, the single piece	0	3
the double piece	0	6
Beef, salted, the last of 12 barrels	0	36
Books, printed, the 100 lb. valued at 36 rix dollars	0	18
Brass or brass wire, the shippound	0	24
wrought, the 100 lb. valued at 36 rix dollars	0	18
Brimstone, the last of 12 shippound	1	0
Brandy, French or Spanish, the hhd.	0	24
corn, the barrel	0	6
rhenish, the ohn	0	24
Bay-berries, the 200 lb.	0	9
Biscuit, or bread of wheat, 4 barrels	0	6
rye	0	4
Butter, the barrel	0	5
Brazil wood, the 500 lb.	0	15
Bristles, the shippound, valued at 36 rix dollars	0	18
Cables, cordage, or cable-yarn, the shippound	0	6
Calicoes, the 8 pieces	0	15
Capers, the pipe, or two hogsheads	0	18

	Rix d.	Sti.
Cards, for playing or for wool, the 10 dozen	0	6
Copper, the shippound	0	24
wrought, the 100 lb. valued at 32 rix dolls.	0	6
Cheese, the shippound	0	4
Cork, the 30 bundles	0	36
Copperas, calamin, or cream of tartar, the ship-		
pound	0	6
Cotton wool, the 100 lb.	0	18
Cardamums, cinnamon, cloves, or cochineal, the		
100 lb.	0	34
Corn, barley, the last of 20 barrels	0	22
beans, peas, oats, or buck-wheat, the last of		
12 barrels	0	18
malt, the last of 20 barrels	0	12
rye, the last of 20 barrels	0	10
wheat, the last of 20 barrels	1	2
Coriander and currants, the 200 lb.	0	6
Casques, the 50 pieces	0	9
Cloth of silk, the piece	0	9
fine, or short cloths, or double dozens, the		
2 pieces	0	9
coarse, or long cloths, or dozens the 4 pieces	0	9
Canvas or cambrics, the 4 pieces	0	15
Camlet, the 4 pieces	0	10
Camels hair, the 25 lb.	0	15
Calimancoes, the 8 pieces	0	10
Campeachy wood, the 500 lb.	0	18
Carraway-seed, the 100 lb.	0	9
Canary seed, the cask	0	6
Chesnuts, the 36 sacks	0	36
Cider, the hogshead	0	12
Caviar, the shippound, valued at 36 rix dollars	0	9
Coffee, the 200 lb.	0	24
Clock-work, the 100 lb. valued at 36 rix dollars	0	18
Crooked wood, or timber, 25 pieces		
Deals of oak or fir, above 20 feet, the schock	1	0
Carlshamn deals, under 20 feet	0	24
Prussia	0	36
common, 10 to 14 feet, the 1000	0	36
Diaper or drilling, the 20 pieces	0	30
Dates, the 100 lb.	0	9
Damask, of silk, the piece	0	12

	Rix d.	Sti.
Damask, of linen, the 4 pieces	0	10
woollen, the 8 pieces	0	10
Druggets, the 2 pieces	0	9
Down, the shippound	0	36
Eels, the last of 12 barrels	0	30
Elephants' teeth, the piece	0	36
Fish, cod, the last 12 barrels	0	12
stock, the last, 12 shippound, or 1000 fish	0	30
salmon, the barrel	0	5
salted herrings, the barrel	0	2
red herrings, the last, of 20 straes, or 20,000	0	12
Feathers, coarse, the shippound	0	6
Flannels, the 8 pieces of 25 ells each	0	10
Flax, dressed, the shippound	0	36
undressed, as Petersburg, Narva, 12 hhds.		
Marienburg, all fine sorts, Podolia, Rakitzer, and Paternoster, the 4 shlb.	1	0
coarse, half clean, Farken, Rassen, Courland, Prussia, Rassets, Memels, and Marienburg, the 6 shippounds	1	0
tow, the 5 shippounds	0	18
Figs, the 18 baskets, 800 lb.	0	18
Fernambuck-wood, the 1000 lb.	0	30
Flounders, dry, the 20,000	0	12
Frieze, the piece	0	6
Flour of wheat, the 200 lb.	0	9
barley or rye, the last of 12 barrels	0	12
Galls, or gum, the 200 lb.	0	9
Gadza, or gum, the 12 lb.	0	30
Glass for windows, English, French, Lubec, and Dantzic, the 8 chests	0	30
Venice drinking ditto, the chest	0	9
bottles, the ton, 4 hhds. and 30 schocks	0	30
the 2 pipes	0	10
quart bottles, 100 dozen, 50 rix dollars	0	24
Grains of guinea, the 50 lb.	0	15
Ginger of guinea, the 100 lb.	0	12
green, the 50 lb.	0	12
Gunpowder, the 100 lb.	0	6
Gloves, Prussia or Courland, the 250 pair	0	9
leather, the dozen, value 2 rix dollars	1	0
Hats, felt, the cask	0	12
beaver, the dozen, value 48 rix dollars	0	34

	Rix d. Sti.
Hats, castor, the dozen, value 48 rix dollars	0 12
Honey, the hogshead	0 7
Hops, the shippound	0 6
Horses, the pair	0 36
Hair, camels or coneys, the 50 lb.	0 50
Hemp, the shippound	0 8
Hemp, tow, the 10 shippounds	0 36
Haberdashery ware, the 100 lb. valued at 36 rix dollars	0 18
Hides, elks, harts, bucks, or Russia, the decker	0 9
salted, elks, harts, bucks, or Russia, the decker	0 6
dry, elks, harts, bucks, or Russia, the 5 deckers	0 18
Russia, the shippound	0 36
Handspikes, the 500	0 8
Iron, wire, or pans, the 100 lb.	0 4
stoves, plates, or pots, the shippound	0 6
bars, bats, bolts, hoops, anchors, and guns, the shippound	0 4
wrought, the 100 lb. valued at 24 rix dollars	0 12
old, the shippound	0 3
ostermunds, the shippound	0 2
Indigo, the 100 lb.	0 36
Isinglass, the 100 lb.	0 6
Juniper berries, the 200 lb.	0 9
Kersits, the 8 pieces	0 10
Lace, silk, or ferret, the 4 lb.	0 10
thread, wool, cotton, or hair, the 10 lb.	0 6
gold and silver, the pound	0 5
Lemons, the 12 chests, or 36,000	0 24
pickled, the pipe, or 2 hhds.	0 18
Linseed, the last of 24 barrels	0 36
Lignum vitæ, the 100 lb.	0 9
Leather, Russia or Scotch, the decker	0 9
Spanish, Cordovan, Turkey, and buff, the decker	0 6
sems, the 10 deckers	0 36
basanes, the 10 deckers	0 18
tanned or soal, the 100 lb.	0 9
alumed or white, the 500 pieces	0 18
Linen, calicoes, the 16 pieces	0 30
flax, the 20 ditto	0 30

	Rix d. Sti.
Linen, Holland, Silesia, and Westphalia, the 4 pieces	0 10
tow linen, crocus, Dantzic tow, ditto, the 40 pieces	0 0
hemp, black tow, the 80 pieces	0 30
canvass, the 8 pieces	0 30
damask, the 12 pieces	0 30
drilling, the 20 pieces, or 500 arsheens	0 30
from Petersburg, all sorts, 40 pieces or 2000 arsheens	0 30
Lead, the fodder ton, or 6 shippounds	0 24
shot, the 100 lb.	0 4
red or white, the 100 lb.	0 2
Logwood, the 800 lb.	0 30
Masts, 15 palms and upwards, the piece small	0 24
for boats, the shock	0 1
Mustard seed, the last of 12 barrels	1 24
Mace, the 50 lb.	0 30
Mats, from Petersburg, the 1000	0 18
Mohair, the 50 lb.	0 15
Nutmegs, the 50 lb.	0 30
Nuts, the last of 20 barrels or sacks	0 18
Nails, Holland or Lubec, the centner	0 12
tree-nails for ships, the 40,000	0 4
Oars, great, the shock	0 36
small, the shock	0 12
Oil, olive, of Seville or Portugal, the pipe	0 8
rape, linseed, hemp, the last of 8 aulns	0 36
train, the last of 8 hogsheads or 12 barrels	0 36
Olibanum, the 100 lb.	0 9
Oranges, the 12 chests, or 3600	0 24
Olives, the pipe or 2 hogsheads	0 18
Paper, the 8 bales or 80 reams	0 30
Pins, 50 dozen	0 30
Pitch, great band	0 18
small	0 9
Plates of tin, the 4 casks or shippound	0 12
Prunes, the 400 lb	0 9
Prunelloes, the 100 lb.	0 9
Pepper, the 100 lb.	0 12
Pewter, the shippound	0 24
Pladding, the 1000 ells or 40 pieces	0 30

	Rix d.	Sti.
Quicksilver, the 50 lb.	0	36
Rape-seed, the last of 24 barrels	0	36
Rashes, the 12 pieces	0	15
Ribbons of silk, or ferrets, the 4 lb.	0	10
gold or silver, the 2 lb.	0	10
Rice, the 200 lb.	0	9
Resin, the shippound	0	6
Raisins, the 400 lb. or 36 baskets	0	36
Rhubarb, the 25 lb.	0	9
Rickers, the shippound	0	12
Saffron, the 2 lb.	0	9
Salt, Spanish, French, and Scotch, the last of 18 barrels or 8 bushels	0	24
Lyneburg, the last of 12 bushels	0	36
Saltpetre, the shippound	0	6
Sumach, the 400 lb.	0	9
Spars, great, the 25 pieces	0	36
small, the thousand	0	16
Says, double, the 2 pieces	0	9
single, or English, the 4 pieces	0	6
Sail-cloth, the 8 pieces	0	30
Satin, the 2 pieces	0	9
Serge, the 12 pieces	0	15
Soap, white, the 100 lb.	0	9
green, the last of 12 barrels	0	36
Shag, with thread, the 2 pieces	0	9
Starch, the 300 lb.	0	8
Steel, the 100 lb.	0	4
Silk, sewing, ferret, wrought lace, the 4 lb.	0	10
raw, the 100 lb.	0	30
stuffs, the 100 lb.	0	15
with gold and silver, the piece	0	18
Skins, beaver, the 5 deckers	0	24
otter, the piece	0	6
Russia, dry, wolf and fox, the 5 deckers	0	18
goat, the 20 deckers	0	36
calf, the 10 deckers	0	12
cat and sheep, the 500 pieces	0	18
black rabbits or lamb, the 1000 pieces	0	18
grey rabbits or kid, the 2000	0	18
martens, the 40	0	30
hare, the bale, valued at 72 rix dollars	0	36

Staves, pipe, hogshead, and barrel, the great hundred of 48 shocks	0	30
Stones, Poland, the 1000 feet of 500 ells	0	30
Sturgeon, the last of 12 barrels	1	12
Stockings of silk, the dozen, or 12 lb	0	30
kersey, woollen, or worsted, for children, the 100 pair	0	30
worsted, florett, and sayett, the 50 pair	0	30
woollen, for children, the 200 pair	0	30
Succad, the 50 lb.	0	12
Sarsaparilla, the 50 lb.	0	18
Sugar candy or confectionary, the 100 lb.	0	18
loaves, powder, or Muscovado, the 200 lb.	0	18
Stuffs, woollen, the 8 pieces	0	12
Sword blades, the 50	0	12
hilts, the 50	0	18
Sweet wood, the 100 lb.	0	9
Tallow, the shippound	0	6
Terras, the last, 6 shippounds, or 12 barrels	0	36
Tar, great band, the last of 12 bbls.	0	18
small band, the last of 12 barrels	0	9
Thread, white and coloured, the 50 lb.	0	30
gold and silver, the pound	0	5
Tin, the shippound	0	24
Tobacco, the 100 lb.	0	9
Treacle, the pipe or 2 hogsheads	0	36
Turpentine, the shippound	0	6
Verdigris, the 100 lb.	0	9
Vermillion, the 100 lb.	0	36
Velvet, fine, the piece	0	9
with thread, the 2 pieces	0	9
Vinegar of wine, the hogshead	0	12
beer, ale, or cyder, the 2 hogsheads	0	9
Wax, the shippound	0	36
Wire, iron or brass, the shippound	0	24
steel, the 100 lb.	0	24
gold and silver, the pound	0	5
Wool, beaver, the 50 lb.	1	0
Spanish, or fine, the 4 shippounds	0	36
coarse or Scotch, the 6 shippounds	0	30
flock, or cutting wool, the 2 shippounds	0	9
Scotch, shirts, the 50 pieces	0	15
shifts, the 8 pieces	0	10

	Rix d.	Sti.
Wood shovels, the 10 schocks	0	9
Wood dishes or trays, the 5 schocks	0	9
plates, the 5 schocks	0	9
nails, the 20,000	0	18
Wine, Bourdeaux, the ton or 4 hogsheads, at 52 rix dollars	1	36
Picardin, Hoogland, Muscat, and Frontinac, the 2 hogsheads	1	0
Spanish or Portuguese, the pipe	1	24
Italian and Levant, the pipe	2	0
Rhenish, the ohm	0	40
Wainscot-boards, the schoek	0	24
Yarn, cotton, the 50 lb.	0	36
linen, the shippound or 40 schocks	0	36
tow, the 4 shippound	0	36
sail, the shippound	0	36
all sorts of woollen, the 50 lb.	0	36

The following articles are forbid to be imported:—Brimstone or buckram into Copenhagen or the island of Zealand; cloth, corn, earthen ware, dried fish, or salt cod; woollen stuffs of all kinds, and kersies; oil of linseed, hemp, and rape seed; flannel, and iron in bars, though prohibited, are allowed an uplag (which is a privilege granted to Copenhagen and Elsineur, where all foreign goods may be landed and exported duty-free within a year) for exportation; brandy, salt, tobacco, and wine, may not be brought into any port in Denmark except Copenhagen; wool cards are not importable into Zealand, but admitted any where else.

N. B. At present, Swedish vessels, under five lasts, pass the Sound without taking a passport, but are not exempt from the light-house duties. Vessels from 1 to 5 lasts, pay four shillings; from 5 to 10½, inclusive, one rix dollar; and from 11 to 19½, inclusive, two rix dollars; whether they be loaded or in ballast. Ships of 20 lasts, and upwards, if loaded, pay four rix dollars; if in ballast, two rix dollars. The director receives only 16 shillings from vessels of from 10 to 14 lasts, and nothing from those under 10.

CHAPTER VI.

Of Norway. Its Extent and Productions. Iron, and Copper Mines. Salt Work. Fisheries. Quantity caught and exported in 1790. Alphabetical List of the principal Norwegian Ports.

NORWAY extends from the Skager Rack, leading to the entrance into the Sound, to the northernmost extremity of the continent on the north-east, and from that eastwards towards the White sea, is bounded by Russian Lapland, in the government of Archangel.

The length, following the coast, is not less than 1600 miles, including the bays and inlets, from Strömstadt in the Skager Rack, to Fisceroe east of Waranger bay; but, as the Swedish dominions, laying round the Gulf of Finland, bound it on the land side, it is in no part more than 220 English miles in width, and this is only at the southern extremity; for all the remaining part is only a narrow line of coast, not above 50 or 60 miles broad, and that is intersected with arms of the sea, creeks, and bays, in the most astonishing manner: and the islands of different sizes are almost without number, and many without even a name. This coast would be the most delightful in the world, if it were in a temperate latitude; but the Naze of Norway, the most southerly point, lays in the 58th degree of north latitude, and the most northerly point in 71.

With so great an extent of coast, and that intersected with innumerable bays and creeks, in so northern a latitude, the North sea fishery is, naturally speaking, its inheritance.

The fisheries, therefore, are to be considered as the principal production of Norway; for what is found in the seas, may as properly be ranked amongst its produce, as if it were found in the bowels of the earth; therefore, fish and timber are the principal produce;* and as the country is inhabited by a poor race of people, and that but very thinly, and does not lay in the way for commerce, it forms the least interesting or important object of the present inquiry.

The imports into such a country consist of such necessaries, and the few luxuries that a poor people require, as such a northerly latitude does not produce; it will, therefore, be unnecessary to enter much into details, the object in this work being only to point out what may be useful for commercial men.

The narrowness of the country, and its northern latitude, make the rivers an object of no consideration.

As there is a great sameness in the ports of Norway, from the nature of the country, and but little general trade betwixt thence and Great Britain, we deviate from the general order of the work, and enter into a short detail of each port, in the manner we have done in the Baltic, and give a general result of the exports from them all. The prohibition of the export of the latter article in Russia, gave new life to that branch in Norway. For the better information, however, of those, who from curiosity may desire to know the principal ports of export from Norway, we shall give an alphabetical list of them; the proportion of trade each has enjoyed will be seen in the exports of fish and wood. None of the towns, one or two excepted, can be said to have more than from 5 to 8000 inhabitants, nevertheless Bergen, which is the capital of the kingdom, is supposed to have a population of 20,000 souls.

ARENDAHL. The ships arrived here in 1792, were 574, and with those built, 604 sailed: in 1793, 86 vessels belonged to this port; their exports are fish and wood.

BERGEN. Held once amongst the first in rank in the Hanseatic League; in the years 1767 and 1768, both inclusive, its exports were 2,758,944 rix dollars; it had already increased to 3,939,385 rix dollars in 1787 and 1788. in 1792, it owned 113 ships; its exportation is fish, wood, and some oil. Its imports, a few luxuries, and some of the necessaries of life.

* Norway produces salt, iron, copper, and some tar, but not to be reckoned as forming objects for general exportation. They will be stated, to shew what little progress has been made to produce these articles in the midst of such easy means.

CHRISTIANA. Its population about 10,000; it has some few ships in the Danish West India trade; in 1792, the number of ships arrived here was 521, and 518 sailed. Its exports are almost entirely confined to wood.

CHRISTIANSAND. Its population about 3500; the ships which arrived here, in 1792, were 392, and 370 sailed. 44 vessels, 2723 commercial lasts belonged to this port in that year. Its exports are some fish and wood.

CHRISTIANSUND. Its population about 1500; nine ships belonged to this port in 1792. Its exports are chiefly fish and wood.

DRONTHEIM, is a considerable place of trade, and next to Bergen. In 1758, its exports amounted to 266,557 rix dollars, and its imports 264,697 rix dollars. The number of ships which arrived, in 1792, were 149, and 137 sailed. In 1793, 39 vessels belonged to this port. Its exports are principally wood and some fish.

FARSUND. Its exports consist in fish and wood.

FLECKIFIORD. A small trading town: in 1792, arrived at this port 115 ships, and from it sailed 123. It had 46 small and large vessels belonging to it in 1793. Exports fish and wood.

FREDERICKSHALD. In 1792, 379 ships arrived here, and 347 sailed. 35 vessels belonged to this port in 1793. Its exports are fish and wood.

FREDERICKSTADT, has some trade, and that of exporting timber. In 1723, five ships belonged to the town; and in 1792, 157 arrived, and 156 sailed.

HOLMSTRAND. Its exports are chiefly timber. In 1792, 138 vessels arrived here, and 101 sailed. In 1793, 19 vessels belonged to this place.

KRAGERÖE. Its export is only wood. In 1792, 27 vessels belonged to this place, in which year 323 arrived, and 280 vessels sailed.

LAURIGEN has ships that export wood, and some little iron. In 1792, 192 vessels arrived, and 210 sailed. In that year 68 vessels belonged to the place.

MANDAHL. Its exports are chiefly wood and some fish. In 1792, 149 vessels arrived here, and 151 sailed. In that year, 23 belonged to the place.

Mos, exports wood. Six vessels belonged to the place in 1792, in which year 347 vessels arrived, and 253 sailed.

OSTER RUSØER, chiefly exports wood. In 1792, 455 vessels



arrived here, and 437 sailed. In that year 61 vessels belonged to this place.

SKEEN, is one of the most ancient towns of Norway; its exports are chiefly wood. It has formerly exported about 9000 shippounds of iron, also pitch and tar; at present it exports none. In 1792, 784 ships arrived, and 679 sailed.

STAVANGER Its population is about 2500. The number of vessels which belonged to this place, in 1792, were 19, and in the year 1795, 21. In 1792, 191 ships arrived, and 183 sailed. Its exports are wood, fish, and some iron.

TÖNSBERG. Its export is only wood; it is an ancient place, said to be built in the eighth century. Present population, 1300. In 1792, 151 vessels arrived, and 160 sailed. 17 vessels that year belonged to the town.

It was before observed that the chief trade of Norway consisted in the exportation of fish and fir timber, which does not require our entering into any length of detail. Although Norway exports little else, yet, there are iron and copper mines, and a salt work, the whole not producing sufficient for their own consumption: they are nevertheless mentioned, to shew that there are other natural productions in Norway, which have not been, but may be yet attended to. After sketching this, more full details will follow, relative to the fisheries and the timber.

At Wolloe they have had salt works for a considerable time past. The sea water here has produced one-thirtieth part of clear salt: this they use for their domestic purposes, and some of their fisheries. To give an idea of the quantity of salt which might be made, the following statement is given, the intermediate years has been sometimes more or less.

	Barrels.
For the year 1775	129089
1779	18123 $\frac{1}{3}$
1781	25251
1783	31509 $\frac{1}{2}$
1785	22541 $\frac{1}{2}$
1787	25442 $\frac{1}{3}$
1790	25199 $\frac{1}{3}$
1791	25277 $\frac{1}{2}$
1792	22523 $\frac{1}{2}$
1793	24767 $\frac{1}{2}$

Though iron makes no regular article of export from Norway, yet there does not appear any reason why they might

not have cultivated this branch as well as Sweden. Wood they have had in sufficient abundance, which is proved by the considerable quantities they have lately exported. There are several founderies in Norway, but they have not been worked with spirit, their produce is therefore but small, since the year mentioned, high as the price has been, they have not much extended their works, and now there is not encouragement for it.

The quantity of refined copper which all the mines of Norway produced in the year 1791, was

At Roraas	2168 shippounds.
Lokken	190
Quikne	110
Selboe	352
Fredericksgave	350
Total	3170 shippounds.
And in 1792	2986

In all the mines, excepting Fredericksgave, the produce of which is not given up for that year.

Small as the quantity is, yet it is mentioned as affording reason to believe that if the country was well examined, and sufficient encouragement given, the quantity might be considerably increased.

Fishery.

It is the individual benefit arising from the fishery that makes these rocky and barren shores inhabited. It seems to be the great resort of fish; and there is a great affinity betwixt those on this coast and on that of Scotland.

The principal fish caught here are cod, ling, haddock, and herrings; the latter almost may be reckoned natives of the Norwegian coast. But the fishery of herrings has very much fallen off from what it was formerly, owing to the emigration of the herrings, which have been found very transitory in their resorts; from hence they have latterly gone on the Swedish coast in the Cattegat. They have what they call the summer herrings and the spring herrings; betwixt which, however, there is so little difference in shape and colour as scarcely to be distinguished, but a considerable difference in size, the spring herring being twice as big as the summer herrings.

Ling is caught in great quantities; it is not used much for food by the inhabitants, but used entirely for exportation,

chiefly for ship's provisions and long voyages. For this purpose, it is mostly exported from Bergen, where they give the best kind the name of (blankelange) white ling; the middling sort (skruelange, or) spotted ling, from its body being a little spotted, which parts are cut off; and the third and last kind which are refused by the merchants, and are generally sold in the country.

A fish is caught on this coast, called the brosmer, which is very like the ling, and which is cured in the same manner as a fish called the haberdine.

The cod is (prepared also like the haberdine) salted and dried. From the liver of this fish vast quantities of oil are produced for home consumption, and some for exportation.

Salmon is caught in great quantities in the creeks, rivulets, and bays, in the Bailiwicks of Bergen, Drontheim, and Finmark, particularly in that of Christiansund, and the adjacent districts; which is exported to Holland, France, and Italy, some to Denmark; it is partly salted, and partly smoked.

The mackarel fishery has been attempted to be established, and might most successively be carried on. In the Gulf of *Langesand*, in particular, in the season, a beautiful fish of that kind resorts, which they call *Tomfrueland*, or Virgin Land mackarel. The Swedish boats generally come to this fishery, where they catch considerable quantities, and afterwards sell them to the Norwegians, at Krageroe, Laurigen, Langesand, and other ports.

Lobsters are caught in great abundance, from Easter till the middle of summer. The English are the principal purchasers; next come the Dutch. The boats from both countries buy them of the fishermen, at so low a price as from two to four and five pence each, and which are frequently sold in London and Amsterdam at from two to six and seven shillings each, sometimes far beyond that price.

As the limits of this work will not allow a full detail relative to the fishery of this country, yet, in order to give a collected and narrow view of it, the species of fish, the quantity exported, its value, and the chief ports from whence, the following table is given.

Account of the Quantity of Fish exported from the principal Ports of Norway, in the Year 1790.

	Bergen.	Dront-heim.	Molde.	Christi-an-fund.	Stevan-ger.	Official Value. Rixdol.
Dried cod, large and small shlb.	43935	3044	235	454	83	8 $\frac{3}{4}$
ling —	6058	181		55		8 $\frac{3}{4}$
Salt herrings bbls.	8722	3721	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	554		6
haddocks —	924				192	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
ling —	640					4
mackarel —	1033				6	2 $\frac{1}{8}$
salmon —	122	1 $\frac{1}{2}$		14		12
Smoked salmon thongs	276	12				1
Lobsters no.	65000					
Fish oil bbls.	23444	2525	584	729	96	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
Different sorts dried fish shlb.	10837	1019	983	5592	161	
Do. do. salt fish bbls.	14570		490	1462	40	

The value of the exportation of fish, from the different ports of Norway in the same year, was

	Dollars.
From Bergen	exported for 958000
Christiansund	78000
Drontheim	75000
Molde	22000
Stavanger	10000
Finmark	40000
the south districts of Norway	20000

The whole amount is, therefore, 1203000 dollars Danish currency.

To the amount of the above exportation is still to be added the annual produce of the herring fishery and dried fish, which are carried by land from Norway to Jemteland, Heredalen, and other provinces in Sweden.

The dried fish are exported to the Mediterranean sea, Holland, Spain, France, and the Baltic.

The pickled herrings are exported to the Baltic and to Germany; the train and fish oil to Holland, the Baltic, and Germany; the roe to France and Spain.

Their fishery made some advance, yet not so rapid as might have been expected, when we consider the war in Europe an-

noys the principal maritime powers, and that Holland was altogether excluded from the fishery, while England neglected it. In the year 1799, however, 256 cargoes of fish were exported from Norway, making 8951 lasts, or about 17900 tons, principally to France, Spain, the Mediterranean, and the Baltic, to which sea were exported 61 cargoes; and, strange as it may appear, near 894 tons of fish were caught and exported by the Norwegians to Great Britain.

Denmark, enjoying the advantages of neutrality during the war, gained great riches, not only by the carrying trade, amongst the belligerent powers, but by encouraging her fisheries and supplying the contending nations with that produce. They were uninterruptedly cultivating it to so great an extent, that the rapid increase from 1799 to 1802 is a sufficient proof that they tasted the fruits of their industry, so as to lay the foundation of wealth. In the latter year, we find no less than 411 cargoes, containing about 26500 tons, of fish exported by sea exclusive of the transport by land to Sweden and what was reserved for home consumption.

Wood.

We next come to the wood trade of Norway, which was but trifling in its exports, owing to its quality being always held as very inferior; the small size also made it not much esteemed, while long, large, full grown timber could be got from the Baltic at reasonable prices. In the year 1797 the exportation from all Norway was

Destination.	Cargoes.	Lasts.
Batavian Republic	156	14662
Different places	15	720
Calais and Dunkirk	16	777
French sea ports	55	3080
Marseilles	2	248
Spain	1	72
Portugal	2	109
Great Britain	63	2673
	310	22341

In consequence of the prohibition to the exportation of timber from Russia, in the close of the year 1798, of which we

have already treated, the exportation, in 1799, from Norway, was,

Destination.	Cargoes.	Lasts.
Naples	1	84
Spain	11	608
France	71	3551
Batavian Republic	20	2176
	2	127
Embden and other ports	100	7717
England	589	46553
Scotland	203	9104
Ireland	172	16565
	1169	86574

Of this quantity we find no less than 964 cargoes, being 72222 lasts, were exported to Great Britain and Ireland, and that too in their own shipping.

The prohibition to the exportation from Russia, and its subsequent limitation, has been greatly in favour of Norway; it has caused timber to be brought farther from the interior, on account of the advanced price, which could not, from the heavy expense, be brought before, when the price was reasonable, and larger timber has, in consequence been got, the farther they have advanced into the interior.

CHAPTER VII.

Of Commercial Institutions in Denmark. Its Bank. Asiatic Company. West India Company. Sea Insurance Company. Transit Trade. Salvage Company and Regulations. Past and present State of the Danish Shipping. Trade and Navigation of Great Britain with Denmark in 1800, 1801, and 1802.

THE BANK of Copenhagen, was established and chartered in the year 1736, under the name of the Assignation, Exchange, and Loan Bank; it existed, with various modifications, till the year 1791, when a regulation entirely new was adopted, and all outstanding notes belonging to the bank were ordered to be called in, and the establishment itself to be abolished, which was executed by a commission, to which was annexed another special one, denominated the Administration for the Sinking Fund.

In lieu of the Copenhagen Bank above described, another was established under the title of the New Danish North Specie Bank, which received its charter on the 16th of February, 1791. This bank issues notes, and all pieces of Danish currency, regulated according to the ancient Danish coinage, are received by it as cash.

The original funds of this company amounted to 2,400,000 rix dollars specie; or, according to the proportion between specie and currency, to 3,000,000 rix dollars currency. Per-

sons desirous of obtaining a loan, or discounting bills, make application to this bank, which likewise receives deposits of silver.

The ASIATIC COMPANY is a very important trading body at Copenhagen, having the exclusive trade to China. It was first established in 1616; its last charter is dated 1792, and fixed for the space of 20 years. The fund of this company, amounting to 2,400,000 rix dollars, is divided into 4800 shares of 500 rix dollars each. In the year 1783, the price of the shares had arisen to above 1800, but soon fell again to 500. In 1782, the dividend on each share was 150; in the year 1793, only 50; and in 1798, only 40 rix dollars. The Asiatic Company is governed by four directors, at a salary of 1000 rix dollars each. Three revisers are appointed, whose duty it is to examine all accounts, papers, and books of the company, to deliver their observations thereon, to suggest plans, &c. At the general meeting of the company, seven renters are annually selected, (two lawyers, three commercial and two naval men), and appointed to be arbitrators or umpires, who are to decide whatever the revisors may have found entitled to consideration.

In 1799, this company sent a ship to China, and her value was as follows :

Cost of the ship and inventory	72000 rix dollars.
Equipment for sea	18000
Ready money and cargo	516800
Total amount	606800 rix dollars.

The SEA INSURANCE COMPANY was established in the year 1726; its present tariff is from the year 1746. This society has its own convention, and also that confirmed by the king. No other but this company is permitted to underwrite or insure in the Danish dominions; though individuals may do this on their own account, or are permitted to insure their property in foreign countries. Private insurances are determined according to the policies; and where these, as well as the inaccurate law on this head, leave an uncertainty, in these cases the tariff and convention of the company are generally resorted to as a guide. But even the convention itself being liable to imperfections, recourse must frequently be had to usage, to foreign insurance regulations, and similar establishments in other countries. The funds of the Copenhagen Insurance Company were, in the year 1798, increased to 600,000 rix dollars, in shares of 1000 each. This company has a number of deputies for the adjustment of

averages and sea damage ; others for the underwriting policies, &c. &c.

DANISH WEST INDIA COMPANY chartered in 1671 ; and the charter renewed in 1778. The Danish West India islands, St. Thomas, St. John, and St. Croix, produced together, in the year 1796, 18600 hogsheads of sugar, 11200 barrels of rum, and 43604 pounds of cotton wool. From the year 1793 to 1796, the said three islands sent to Denmark yearly from 30 to 40 ships. In 1796, the number of negro slaves in the said islands was 25450.

TRANSIT TRADE, *or housing of goods in the warehouses of the custom-house, until they are conveyed further.* For the first two weeks of their being housed, no charge is made, whence these days are called free days ; but, after that time is expired, a moderate duty is demanded, which is, however, doubled, if the goods are suffered to remain upwards of three months after the expiration of the fourteen free-days. This is not a bad regulation, as it allows a reasonable delay, but loads with heavy duty negligence, or useless loss of time in mercantile affairs.

SALVAGE denotes, in the strict sense of the word, the right of saving wrecked goods on the sea shore, and appropriating the same to the use of the finder, provided no owner makes his claims to them within a year and a day.

It appears that the most ancient Danish laws made some excellent provision in cases of shipwreck, by directing that all wrecked goods which had been saved, should be taken the strictest care of, and that those who had assisted in their preservation, should receive a certain recompense for their labour ; heavy penalties were attached to peculation, even to the smallest amount ; and the original owner had a right to reclaim the whole within a year and a day. At different times, a variety of modifications were made with respect to the laws on this subject, until the following code was established, which is still in force.

1. *According to the first article, in case a ship is wrecked or otherwise lost, the crew and all who may actually assist in endeavouring to save the ship and its cargo, are allowed a certain salvage ; but no one to be entitled to any recompense, unless he has been actually aiding. The captain has a right of saving, with the assistance of his mariners, or any other persons, whatever may be in his power ; and when nothing more can be saved, they are permitted to sell the remainder of the wreck or goods to any purchaser, without any impediment whatever.*

2. If the captain and crew are unequal to the task, in that instance all public functionaries, and others along the coast, are bound to assist in saving whatever they may be able to do, in consideration of a moderate compensation for their labour; and when the goods saved are in security, the magistrate of the district, and a number of the most respectable men; or if in a town, the mayor and council are to determine the amount of the reward, according to the value of the goods and other circumstances.

3. If the captain has agreed with the salvors to allow them a certain sum or portion of the goods saved, for their exertions in assisting, or if a certain proportion is fixed upon for them to receive for whatever they may be able to save, such an agreement must be abided by and remain in full force.

4. If no living person be found on board of the wreck or with the goods, the mayor, (if the ground belong to the king), or lord of the manor, is bound to save whatever he can preserve, and deposit the same in safety, with an accurate list of all. The owner may for a year and a day demand its restoration, on paying a moderate salvage. Goods saved in a damaged state are, if possible, to be preserved by direction of the mayor or lord of the manor, at the expense of the future claimant; if not of a nature to be preserved, they are immediately to be sold to the highest bidder. Persons pilfering any of the articles are subject to the same punishment as those are, who cannot prove their right to goods in their possession. If no person appears within a year and a day to prove the property of the ship and cargo, in that case, it falls to the king or lord of the manor.

5. If the commander of a vessel find at sea, or sunk to the bottom a wreck, or anchor, &c. he is bound to deliver the same to the person acting in the name of the king, at the first place he arrives at; the latter will immediately give him one-third of the value for his labour, and secure it for a year and a day, during which time the original proprietor may have it restored, on paying salvage and every expense; if no claimant appears it falls to the king; peculators incur penalties, (see 4.) The same regulations apply to fishermen finding an anchor at sea, either with or without a buoy. Whoever finds a wreck at a considerable distance from the shore, without any person on board, and saves it, is entitled to one half of its amount, and the king to the other; provided no owner appear within a year and a day.

7. If a ship is wrecked and the goods are saved, the captain is entitled to an equitable allowance for freight; the owner however, has the right of relinquishing to him the cargo for the freight.

8. Should the value of the ship or wrecked goods saved, after paying the salvage, not be equal to pay the wages of the crew, they forfeit all their claim and must stand to the loss.

If a ship is wrecked in its passage to or from the Baltic, the crew, on their arrival at Elsineur, receive relief from the poor-chest of the Sound-toll direction, by applying through the means of the commissioner of the ship, or the person who was to have been the agent, in the following proportion :

The captain receives	4 rix dollars currency.
mate	2
common seaman	1
boy	$\frac{1}{2}$

Of all wrecked goods sold, the duties are to be delivered in immediately, with an accurate list, specifying every particular concerning them. But should they be owned within the space of six months, they are exempt from all charges whatever ; on the expiration of that period, the usual duties as in the transit trade must be paid.

Shipping, Trading Vessels, &c. of Denmark.

In the year 1748, the state of the Danish shipping was as follows :

Copenhagen	145 ships.
The other Danish harbours	648
The dutchies of Schleswig and Holstein	387
Norway	568
Total number	1748

Vessels belonging to the Danish States above 20 Commercial Lasts, in the Year 1780.

	Ships.	Com. Lafts.	Men.
Denmark	696	34764	5256
Norway	948	57818	7311
Schleswig	431	20575	1535
Holstein	304	20959	3567
Total	2379	134117	17729

In the Year 1797, the Number of Danish Ships and Vessels were,

	Ships.	Commercial lafts.	Men.
Dutchy of Schleswig	436	17236	3222
Holstein	461	30011	5454
Denmark, Copenhagen	333	22208	} 4455
Asiatic company	9	3032	
Canonry of Zealand	38	882	182
Funen	97	1860	411
Aalborg	66	1160	246
Wyburg	4	58	12
Aarhuns	91	1839	403
Ribe	77	2450	1022
Norway, Canonry of Christiana	332	26851	2973
Christiansand	314	16149	2511
Bergen	134	6599	1205
Drontheim	55	2948	469
Total	2447	133283	22565

In the Year 1802, not reckoning those under 10 Lasts, were,

	Number of Ships.	Commercial Laftage.	Men.
Denmark	683	33303 $\frac{1}{2}$	4790
Norway	990	53753 $\frac{1}{2}$	7680
Schleswig	401	19042 $\frac{1}{2}$	1381
Holstein	194	13143	2635
Total	2268	119942 $\frac{1}{2}$	16486

The inference to be drawn from the above tables is too evident to require much elucidation. In the space of 22 years, and those the most active in commerce that were ever known, (while England, engaged in a most expensive war, has doubled its trade), Denmark, with all the advantages of peace and neutrality, remains stationary. The decrease is partly accounted for by vessels of a smaller size being excluded from the last account.

All the foreign ships which come into the Danish harbours, as well as their own ships, are measured, and the number branded fore and aft in the ship. An attestation is likewise drawn up and given to the master, of their measurement and number of seamen, which is done by the custom-house officer of any port, but it is not conceived valid. It is at Copenhagen where vessels are measured, if they have not been there before, particularly if they have not on any part the brand to denote that they have previously been in a Danish port; when this is done, an attestation is then given in due form.

This is a very good plan, and might be adopted with advantage in every country, as it would cost little trouble at first, and might save a good deal afterwards.

In times of peace it is estimated that Denmark gains by the carrying trade nearly four millions of rix dollars. If then we consider the almost exclusive trade she now has in that branch amongst the European powers, and the considerably higher freights her ships now obtain, (at least treble the sum to what she makes in time of peace), it is wonderful her shipping does not increase.

On the state of the commerce of Denmark as it is, many remarks are not necessary, its amount at the present time, compared with the past, proves how slow the progress is that that country makes towards wealth, though better situated even than Holland, for a commercial nation: and on the Atlantic shore of the continent, no country, either enjoyed such natural advantages, or employed them so well, as the Seven United Provinces.

We have already shewn how the nations living on the Baltic sea, at a very early period, enjoyed commerce, and carried it on to a great extent; we have explained how the trade to the interior of the continent may be so advantageously and easily carried on by that channel, adverting to the necessity of applying to it under the present circumstances.

At all times, Denmark, from its situation, ought to be wealthy. The nature of the government is likewise favourable,

as it affords liberty and security, and the taxes are low; yet still the country advances so slowly, that in comparing it with others, it may be said to go backwards. If the same persecution is continued over the inhabitants of the Dutch provinces, that has taken place since they fell into the power of France, there is no doubt, that many of them will emigrate to Holstein, and carry with them the true spirit of commerce, which appears to be the only thing wanting to make that one of the most flourishing countries of Europe.

The Danes are particularly backward in introducing inventions, either for the abbreviation of labour, or for increasing its result; but as wealth and all its concomitants are comparative, so long as other nations invent or copy inventions, those who refuse to do the same, must necessarily fall more and more behind.

Good roads (and perhaps iron railways) are in a most particular manner wanted in Denmark; first, because there is a great deal of passing with heavy goods; and next, because they are remarkably bad.

The facility with which new inventions are now introduced from one country to another, and the means that the inhabitants have of knowing what will suit their purpose, precludes the necessity of pointing out to the Danes, in what their inferiority lies, particularly as they have so excellent an example set before them by the kings of Prussia, who, for half a century, have been occupied in attempts to increase the wealth and prosperity of their subjects.

When a nation is in the situation of England, superior to others, there may be some difficulty of discovering by what means its prosperity can be increased; but in the case of Denmark, or any other people, that are behind, there can be no difficulty; all that is necessary, is to copy, to imitate, and to follow the example of others.

To be able to do this, however, the government should have a disposable sum for the encouragement and protection of new establishments; but this is what neither Denmark nor Sweden has, and perhaps, it is one of the principal causes of those two nations being so far behind others in their progress.

It cannot have escaped observation, that though all the northern nations have bank paper, and seem to have paid considerable attention to the subject; yet none of them have been very successful in establishing a bank on a good plan, though they have had the example of the banks of London and Amsterdam, either of which, might be taken as an excellent model;

instead of which, attempts have been made to improve and alter the plan, by which means the establishments that have been formed are of little utility.

The exportation to Denmark has been rapidly on the increase, even before the last war, but since then, it has totally altered its proportion, owing to the causes already so frequently mentioned, that have driven the trade of the continent to the northern parts of Europe. Our imports from that country have not increased with nearly equal rapidity, though still the increase is very great, and particularly so, when we consider the nature of those articles, and the way they are rated in the books of the custom-house. Timber, and the other sorts of produce received from Denmark, are rated as they were when the prices were not half what they are now, while a great part of the goods we send over, consist of articles, some unknown altogether 60 years ago, and others, which have no fixed value at any time, and are rated according to their real worth.

The increase of importation may be principally considered as an account of the increased quantity, not value; but on the exportation, it is value, not quantity.

The neglect of our timber at home, and the general waste and consumption of the produce of other countries, enrich the whole of the north of Europe. The activity of our trade makes us do every thing in the building way for the present purpose, and in the end, costs double what it does in nations whose operations are less rapid, and the works of men more permanent. This is a subject that deserves some attention. Wherever buildings are slight, rents are high in proportion to the money laid out, and a considerable portion of the industry of a country, building in a temporary manner, is employed on repairs. As for the materials, so far as they come from other nations, they are a drain on us. This theory may be the better to be confirmed by a fact. Though England is a manufacturing nation, timber is scarcely a material on which any of its manufacturers are employed; but it purchases more than all the rest of Europe; and yet, all throughout Europe people have houses and furniture, as well as in England. Formerly we consumed much less, even in England, and our waste seems to have gone on nearly in proportion to the general activity of commerce.

Table of the Trade and Navigation of Great Britain with Denmark, during the Three most remarkable Years, when the Northern Confederacy existed, when Copenhagen was attacked, and when Peace was restored.

Value of Exports to Denmark.				Shipping.											
				Inwards.						Outwards.					
				British.			Foreign.			British.			Foreign.		
				vess.	tons.	men.	vess.	tons.	men.	vess.	tons.	men.	vess.	tons.	men.
Years.	Value of Imports from Denmark.	British manufacture.	Foreign merchandise.	Total of British and foreign merchandise exported to Denmark.											
1800	£. 241563 s. 4 d. 8	£. 186703 s. 17 d. 4	£. 353994 s. 3 d. 5	£. 540698 s. 0 d. 9	170	18696	1330	1126	178849	9994	343	55125	3015	915	160213
1801	£. 208794 s. 3 d. 9	£. 144989 s. 0 d. 2	£. 271486 s. 0 d. 1	£. 416475 s. 0 d. 3	269	30065	2128	801	138370	7766	394	63586	3421	705	133410
1802	£. 155672 s. 0 d. 1	£. 194549 s. 13 d. 9	£. 342967 s. 12 d. 9	£. 537517 s. 6 d. 6	414	50899	3001	743	124752	7096	404	61411	3498	527	97238

CHAPTER VIII.

Of the Aggregate of the Baltic Trade. Its State at the Commencement of the French Revolution, in Imports and Exports. The Share France then had of it. The average Quantity of the principal Articles exported from the Baltic betwixt the Years 1801 and 1803. Aggregate Value of the Exports for the same Period. Aggregate Quantity of Shipping of the Powers around the Baltic. The Amount of the Imports and Exports of Great Britain to and from the Baltic, at different Periods. Table of the Trade and Navigation of Great Britain with the Baltic, in the Years 1800, 1801, and 1802.

THE commerce of all the nations on the borders of the Baltic sea has been gradually increasing for the last century; that of Russia has increased the most; Prussia next; then Denmark; and, last of all, Sweden, which has been very nearly stationary.

It was not till the year 1790, when the French revolution began to derange the old order of things, that commerce increased in a manner quite different, and much more rapidly than any other event could have occasioned. The advancement in civilization, in arts, industry, and population, are, all of them gradual operations, and their effects will be seen to be gradual also; but this was not like the swelling of a river by degrees, it was a great river turned from its old course to a new one, and the effect was immediate and immense.

In order to shew this observation in its proper colours, when France, in the year 1789, the year the revolution commenced, had as a great a share of the Baltic trade as almost at any other period, and during a time of profound peace, two tables follow, the one serving to shew the principal articles exported from the chief ports of the Baltic, and the number of ships of all nations to each of those ports. The same details are given of the merchandise imported, and of the shipping into the Baltic.—The whole serving to shew the precise state of the trade of all nations, and the articles respectively imported and exported by them to and from the Baltic.

Of the share France had of this trade at that period, both in the articles of exportation to, and of importation from, the Baltic, a statement is likewise given; after which some general remarks will follow, relative to the state of the trade of the Baltic as it now is.

Table, shewing the Merchandise exported from the chief Places in the Baltic Sea, and the Number of Ships in the Year 1789, and their loading.

Names of Nations.	States of Prussia.	Russia.	Sweden.	Copenhagen.	Dantzic.	Courland.	Swedish Pomerania.	Rostoc.	Denmark.	Prussia Proper.	Elfineur.	Lubec.	Baltic Sea in general.	Total.
Wheat	247	4	13	8	95	2	25	17	7	16			1	390
Rye	217	18	6	7	95	16	22	22	3	6	4	3		434
Barley					2	5	4	7	13					62
Corn in general	9	4	32	12	11		16	24						113
Cordage, linen, &c.		8	2	1			1			1		2	1	29
Mats	687	32	36	2	77	34	3		11		1	3	4	37
Balks, deals, planks	112	313	30	1	52	3	3		2			3	3	1169
Ship timber	5	196	297	3			3		2			2	3	210
Iron, copper, brads, &c.	2	67												508
Tallow and leather	1	2	94	3	45	2	1		9				1	69
Pitch and tar	39	5	1			1								110
Ashes, pot and pearl				11		1								93
Pease, flour, and provisions				8										13
Stones, powder, and saltpetre	66	168	5	2		21			1			2		259
Hemp and linseed oils	36	279		12		22						3		5
Lime, chalk, and bricks			4	16										353
Hemp and tow			5	12										20
Salted fish	2	115	5	248	2		2		4		4	3	3	385
Different goods	1	4	5	77	1	1	1		11		16	1		121
Flax														
Total	1424	1215	530	411	381	139	82	70	63	23	21	16	134	4388

Of these 4388 ships there went to
 Swedish ports in the North sea 197
 Danish ports in general 536
 Bremen and Hamburg 65
 East Friesland 35
 Holland 1074
 Austrian Flanders 45
 British Isles 1570

France 508
 Portugal 168
 Spain 128
 Italy and the Mediterranean 42
 North America 20

Total 4388

Table of the Cargoes of Ships entering into the Baltic Sea in 1789; from what Countries chiefly, and of what their Cargoes consisted.

Names of Nations.	Brandy, vinegar, and gin.	Diff. wines.	Ale and beer.	Different fruits.	Olive oil.	Sugar and Syrups.	Coffee.	Salt.	Herrings, fish, &c.	Iron.	Lead, pewter, copper, tin, and brals.	Glass ware, &c.	Stones, bricks, and marble.	Grain, malt, barley, grits, and rice.	Coals.	Stuffs and cloth.	Guns.	Planks, wood, and logwood.	Tobacco.	Horses, cows, and carriages.	Butter, bread, cheese, meats, and provisions.	Divers goods.	In ballast.	Total.	
Swedish ports	2							35	257	1			1	8	4				6		1		6	27	348
Bremen and Hamburg	6					5		2					1	1					1			1	27	68	115
Holland	13					2		26	9	2		2	57	3					1	4		5	179	559	870
France	9	135				4	9	71				1								1		132	178	560	
Spain	1	9				1		65										1				12	5	85	
Portugal		10				3		45														4	1	66	
Italy and Mediterranean		4				1		26														12	2	49	
British Isles			27			3		56		1	14	3	7	5	200	5	27	4	5	1	11		1136	1082	1612
Austrian Flanders								4														4	4	105	118
Danish ports						6	1	28	161	54	1	3	2	2	3	179	1					21	44	47	542
East Friesland									4				28	2		1						1	16	52	
North America														5									1	12	12
Total.....	31	158	27	14	7	22	12	378	431	58	15	9	96	26	207	29	5	194	6	12	28	1563	2081	4427	

Of these 4427 ships there went to

Elfsneur	42	Lubec	52	Courland	71
Copenhagen	549	Sweden	309	Russia	861
Denmark	92	Swedish Pomerania	45	Baltic, without the destination being precisely known	1134
Rostoc	68	Dantzic	239		
		Prussia	965		
				Total	4427

Exports and Imports of France, to and from the different Ports in the Baltic Sea, in the Years 1789 and 1790.

Exported from France in		1789	1790
Alum	lbs.	1450	2280
Almonds		230000	183347
Anniseed		4600	3471
Antimony			1600
Brandy	hhd.	17800	13222
Capers, olives, &c.	bbl.	807	337
Chestnuts, dry nuts, &c.	bag	279	57
Cinnamon	lbs.		270
Coffee			5819754
Cocoa		6529960	30768
Cochineal		117	138
Conserves of different kinds		750	552
Cotton		76000	15161
Cumin		11100	
Cloths, fine			141
Cotton, thread, &c.		8210	15078
Cork			38820
Corks			3029
Figs		39716	20888
Flints			258
Gall nuts		37040	24185
Gum		3500	3347
Goods of different kinds	rix dol.	250000	184407
Glass ware and window glass	chefts.	250	79
Ginger and other spices		11400	
Hams	casks		9600
Honey			145
Indigo	lbs.	68000	55871
Iron works	shlbs.	1050	7239
Kali, or salt wort			9920
Linen			184
Liquors			212
Lemons and oranges fresh	chefts.	937	1133
Olives and capers		807	508
Dye-wood			
Orleans			6662
logwood			6000
Rocou			4000
different kinds of dye		85000	
divers drugs		109900	
Paper	bales	977	16205
Pears and apples	casks	617	630
Pepper			1085
Perfumery			681
Pitch and resin	shlbs.	319	118
Provision of different kinds			2925
Prunes	lbs.	1800000	1361135
Prunelloes		100000	
Quicksilver		319	

Exported from France in		1789	1790
Raisins of different kinds	lbs.	54000	47591
Root-liquorice			43540
Rice		546000	47672
Saffron		411	473
Saltpetre			231400
Salt	lasts	8500	284
Silk in stuffs	pcs.	247	195
stockings		3780	6698
Silk of different kinds			1250
Soap	lbs.	105000	90830
Sulphur		370000	211400
Sugar		16537976	14026838
Syrup	bbbl.	4000	5529
Tartar		180000	78720
Tobacco		168000	11747
Turpentine		390	100080
Verdigrease			40640
Vinegar	bbbl.	4040	4330
Vonnedes	packs		105
Wax-lights			72
Wine	bbbl.		5573

Imported into France in		1789	1790
Almonds	lbs.	150	
Ashes, weed	bbbl.	7000	4512
Alum			281
Barley	last	200	400
Beams	pcs.	10000	7400
Bowsprits			72
Burtills			36
Bristles			77
Caviar	bbbl.	10900	19
Copper and brass	shlb.	5000	3848
Candles	chefts.		509
Cloth, common fail	packs	2000	5336
Ravenducks			631
Flems			31
homespun	bales	67	325
Flax, clean	lasts	150	
for spinning			265
Fur, and different goods	rix dol.	50000	31
Quintal gunpowder			1000
Hemp, clean	lasts	7000	
for spinning			31624
Hemp-feed		50	48
flax, different kinds		800	44
Hemp oil, &c.	bbbl.	3000	71
Hare-skins	bales	40	71
Isinglass	lbs.	9000	1793
Iron in bars and plates	shlb.	96000	40146
Leather skins prepared in Russia	pcs.	150	283
Masts and wood for ships		19988	1928
Manes	bales		35

Imported into France in		1789	1790
Nails and fastenings for ships	pcs.	1000	3827
Oats	last	100	682
Ox-skins			1150
Pitch and tar	bbl.	21080	1202
Pease	last	20	13
Potashes	shlb.		4139
Planks 7 to 14 feet	dozen		18435
15 to 20			3435
20 to 30			740
Quills	fack	20	640
Ropes tarred	lasts	125	81
Rye		2250	2636
Rouge common, for dye			284
Ship-timber and pipe-staves	pcs.	50000	1925
Steel	shlb.	600	248
Stones diamonds	dozen	35000	1540
Ships' masts			278
topmasts			469
small do. for boats			280
Spars, &c.			1329
Tow, hemp	last	10	1985
flax		180	2003
Tobacco of Ukraine	bbl.	3	2
Table-services	pcs.		514
Tallow	lasts	800	2102
Wax-lights	chefts	3	
Wax	casks	100	4920
Wheat	lasts	80000	5787
Wool, common		30	9440

Though France has ceased to be a commercial nation, and instead of furnishing colonial produce to many nations which it did till the year 1790, on the continent, not having the means of supplying itself, yet it still continues to produce wines and brandies which are carried away in neutral vessels, and to import the produce and manufactures of other countries partly by neutrals, and partly smuggled in through Holland, Germany, and Switzerland. The trade, however, is greatly diminished, as it has less means of paying, and having itself no direct communication, the articles it imports come dearer, while those it exports must be sold cheaper and in less quantities.

In endeavouring to shew the quantity of the principal articles exported from all the ports of the Baltic to all places; reckoning upon the average, betwixt the years 1801 and 1803, the following is nearly correct:

Iron . . .	66800 tons	Flax . . .	18700 tons
Hemp . . .	62500	Tallow . . .	34800

GRAIN EXPORTED

	in 1801	in 1802.
Wheat . . .	994609	1032941 quarters.
Rye . . .	689133	1166537
Barley . . .	193046	194683
Oats . . .	97337	168201
Pease . . .	32129	32470
Total . . .	2012254	2594832

Timber in masts, yards, spars, barks, deals, battens, staves, oak plank, and wood of all descriptions, too tedious to mention; as well as many other articles of inferior importance.

The number of trading vessels belonging to the states and nations around the Baltic, including those of Norway and Holstein, in 1804, was 4134, carrying about 493,417 British tons.

The aggregate value of the exports from all the Baltic ports to all places, according to the prime cost price, shipped on board, (upon the average of the exchange) betwixt the years 1801 and 1803, may for the whole of the Baltic trade be reckoned,

Iron	about £.1002000
Hemp	— 2590600
Flax	— 1028500
Tallow	— 2497000
Grain	in 1801 £.6762530
	1802 8454200
	15216730

Average of the two years . . . 7608365

Wood of all sorts as before described, including that from Norway 1589800

Linens of all kinds, particularly since this trade has partly gone by way of Stettin 1020000

All other articles as ashes, bristles, butter, and provisions, caviar, cordage, copper, hemp-seed, linseed, and their oils, hides, glue, and horns, leather, pitch and tar, wax, feathers, and sundry other articles to all quarters 2186000

£.19522265

The aggregate of the trade of the Baltic, may then, in great exportation years of corn, be reckoned to amount to no less a sum than twenty millions sterling; a sum, greatly beyond that which was ever conjectured. The price is calculated according to the actual average prices paid, and the exchange of those periods actually drawn upon England, Amsterdam, and Hamburg.

When there is no great exportation of grain, the difference in amount in the Baltic trade is considerable, and must of course have some influence upon the exchange on England.

The ordinary quantity of corn exported from the Baltic, at the medium prices amounts annually to about two millions sterling. But some years it has amounted to the immense sum of eight millions, which is more than the regular produce of all our West India islands put together!!!

The share which Great Britain has of the Baltic trade, (not taking grain into the calculation,) amounts to, at least, two-thirds of the whole; consisting of iron, hemp, flax, and tallow, which latter article is in a still greater proportion; of wood or timber nearly the whole. Without grain, the aggregate trade of the Baltic is then twelve millions sterling; this fact is confirmed on examining the official accounts of Great Britain, which, according to the rates fixed at a very remote period, that is, at the end of the seventeenth century, and reckoning some only double the rate then fixed, (many treble, and even more,) it brings the actual amount, upon the average of the three last years, to near eight millions and a half sterling per annum, at the most moderate rate, but it is near nine millions in the actual cost to the country. The articles of exportation are many of them new, which are put at nearly their proper value, whilst the old staple manufactures of the country remain stationary, and they are not now exported in any quantity; so that the Baltic trade is a very losing one to Great Britain; it will be shewn still more strikingly, when treating of our resources. We might raise all the articles we take from that quarter amongst ourselves at home, or in our own plantations, and employ the same quantity of shipping, and the same number of men. France sets Great Britain an example in this point; being driven out of the Baltic trade, (excepting some little by the Holstein canal,) she wisely produces the raw material, and establishes similar manufactures within herself. She has become independent of any external supplies, exports her own produce, and manufactures of luxury and inutility, to that quarter; from whence she takes little or nothing back.

A statement follows of the trade of Great Britain with the Baltic, from the official accounts, beginning in the year 1701, at various intervals, till 1785, and from 1791 to the present period, distinguishing England from Scotland according to the rated value which has been fixed partly in the year 1696.

The share which all countries have in the trade of the Baltic, will partly be judged of by referring to the number of vessels of each passing the Sound. An account of the vessels of different nations which have passed through the Holstein canal does not appear; those being chiefly Prussian and Danish, it must be a natural conclusion to every one, from what has been said, that the Dutch and French have the greatest part of the trade that way.

The following is the official account of the trade of Great Britain with the Baltic; by which is meant, all the states and powers surrounding that sea. Norway is included as forming part of Denmark, to shew in the strongest point of view the increase of the Northern trade; the amount is given at several periods betwixt the years 1700 and 1786, and each year from 1791 till the present, distinguishing England from Scotland.

Year.	Imported.	Exported.
1701	£ 417245	£.334346
1705	525789	264623
1710	465161	301143
1715	605565	242946
1720	583104	432426
1725	728257	230681
1730	736079	299975
1735	765178	257763
1740	770709	283860
1745	868271	304786
1750	1195702	363060
1755	1202963	368350
1760	932229	351211
1765	1416593	497478
1770	1435676	451905
1775	1247096	462517
1780	1754839	547916
1785	2411090	719483

ENGLAND.

SCOTLAND.

Years.	Imported.	Exported.	Imported.	Exported.
1791	£.2239741	£.1101304	£.588520	£.36413
1792	2383584	1347192	451785	51643
1793	2810396	827157	412581	46278
1794	2360000	1349790	543627	43181
1795	2416314	1778571	440628	69372
1796	3738526	1927294	667208	67289
1797	2376684	1889788	404176	41473
1798	3148468	1722482	678927	58550
1799	3425302	1446037	832042	61730
1800	4040899	2450733	625827	36492
1801	3733497	2061346	406759	36374
1802	3152061	3039116	569699	54993
1803	3142212	5028756*	637579	398786
1804	—	—	814197	441848

The foregoing account shews, in a very distinct and evident manner, how much the French revolution, and the war that followed, have turned the trade into a Northern Channel, both in the exports and imports; but particularly the former, which have risen to about ten times what they were previous to that event: and even the interval of *peace* did not draw commerce back to its former channel, which gives reason to think, that, were the present order to cease, (or rather disorder), commerce would not, for a long period, return to the situation it was in previous to 1790.

* Denmark and Prussia have had so considerable an addition to make the difference.

The following table shews the aggregate of the trade and navigation of Great Britain with the Baltic, during three of the most remarkable years, selected for that purpose; viz. when the northern confederacy commenced, and the embargo took place on British shipping in Russia, in 1800;—its termination, and the battle of Copenhagen, in 1801;—and of the general peace in 1802. In 1800 the countries are distinguished according to the manner in which the official accounts are kept at the custom house; but, in 1801 and 1802, the aggregate only is given.

	Value of Exports to the Baltic				Shipping Inwards.						Shipping Outwards.					
	Value of imports from the Baltic.	British manufactures and produce.	Foreign merchandise.	Total of British and foreign merchandise exported.	British.			Foreign.			British.			Foreign.		
					v. sh.	tons.	men.	vess.	tons.	men.	vess.	tons.	men.	vess.	tons.	men.
Denmark	£. 241562	£. 186703	£. 353994	£. 540698	170	18696	1330	1126	178849	9994	343	55125	3015	915	160213	8526
Russia	2382098	557374	467960	1025335	766	163464	7517	55	13114	617	693	165219	7701	129	25896	1180
Sweden	309280	29761	49079	78840	94	10308	591	267	39141	2249	62	8088	422	185	28055	1592
Poland	393041	17802	30099	47902	176	31124	1481	138	25769	1185	75	11742	613	40	10281	494
Prussia	1340904	297185	497266	794452	555	109371	5190	1365	159817	7272	297	54424	2718	1701	171246	9078
1800	4666887	108828	1398400	2487228	1761	332963	16109	2951	416690	21317	1470	294598	14469	2970	395691	20870
1801	4138468	1112969	995343	2108312	1749	324718	15435	2511	377386	18812	1333	240545	12145	2393	440244	22623
1802	3723057	1495925	1598185	3094111	2415	457232	22911	1468	234216	12370	1458	262500	13230	1336	213701	11043

The trade to Germany goes (though not to the same places) ultimately through the same channels, and it has for several years, on an average, amounted to above 8,000,000*l.* sterling. The whole amount of our exports to the northern countries, or by the channels, cannot be stated, on an average, to be less than 12 millions, which is more than two-thirds of the exports of this country to the whole of the continent.

BOOK VI.

CHAPTER I.

OF GERMANY IN GENERAL.

Remarks on the Trade and Navigation by the Rivers Elbe, Weser, and Ems.—Description of the Silesian and German Linens, exported by Way of Hamburg and Bremen, alphabetically arranged.

THE North of Germany has certain commercial advantages, which many other countries do not possess, among which are principally to be reckoned the great rivers, the Rhine, the Elbe, and the Oder, and next the Weser and Ems, all which flow through and communicate with the greatest part of Germany; the Oder falling into the Baltic, the others into the North Sea, by which they export their produce and manufactures, and serve to convey the produce of other countries in return, which the south of Germany cannot do. The three rivers, the Elbe, the Weser, and the Ems, rise in different provinces of Germany, and, passing through Lower Saxony, all fall into the North Sea nearly at the same point. The Elbe is a river of considerable length, and navigable for a great way, but the other two

are neither long nor navigable any distance. After having described each of them separately, we shall give a distinct account of the trade of Hamburg, Bremen, and Embden, which are the towns that principally engross the trade of those rivers.

As, however, the produce of all the countries through which they run is nearly the same, as well as the articles they import, we shall give general details; and as the linen manufactures in that quarter are encouraged and improved with great rapidity, and immediately concern the United Kingdom of Britain and Ireland in a particular manner, we shall give the principal sorts of them at considerable length, where and how manufactured, and the markets to which they are exported.

The articles exported from this country to those ports may be said to be a pretty equal distribution or assortment of East India and West India produce, and of our manufactures at home; for, excepting in the single article of linens, we can scarcely be considered as rivals to them, or dealing in the same sort of commodity. The principal part of our own manufactures, and colonial produce exported to the continent, is by the channel of these three rivers, and consists, at present, of woollens, cottons, and iron manufactures almost of every description.

We must here observe, that, in our own colonial produce exported to that quarter, we participate with other nations, particularly America, which country trades immediately from the islands with coffee, sugar, cotton, and other articles; in payment for their lumber and provisions from the West Indies, they take in return valuable cargoes of linens and manufactured goods from Germany, so that England loses the import on the one hand, and a market for her manufactures on the other. It would not come within the scope of this work to enter into all the details of the various articles exported from this country, or imported into it from Germany, when the Elbe is free, and Hamburg can carry on her trade uninterrupted. Some idea may be formed of it by the alphabetical list of imports into that city, stated at length under the head of Hamburg.

Description of the principal sorts of Silesian and German Linens, arranged in alphabetical order, according to the names they pass by in Germany, and chiefly exported by way of Hamburg, Bremen, and Embden.

BIELFELD LINEN

Is the best sort manufactured in Germany; and, on account of its excellent quality, is preferred both to the Irish and the Dutch linens; it is exported to almost every part of the world, but in particular to America, where it is often sold at from 40 to 45 per cent. profit upon the invoice cost; it is exported again from thence to the West Indies and Spanish America in considerable quantities. It is made in the city of Bielfeld in Prussia, one house having the principal trade in this linen; it is from 1 to $1\frac{3}{4}$ yards wide, and the length of the pieces are from 30 to 60 Bielfeld ells, or from $18\frac{3}{4}$ to $37\frac{1}{2}$ yards in length.* This place is very famous for fine linen, for which 125 rix dollars have been paid for a piece containing 60 Bielfeld ells unbleached, which is equal to 22l. sterling for about 37 yards.

BLEICHTUCHER.

This is a coarse kind of linen manufactured in the electorate of Hesse and Cassel; it is about one yard wide, and made up in pieces, containing 35 yards or 50 ells in length. The chief markets for this linen are Portugal, Spain, and the United States of America. In the former countries it is used in bleaching; and, in the latter, a part of it is used for the negroes; but a more considerable part is exported again to the West Indies for making coffee and cotton bags. This linen is sometimes improperly called Bleytucher, but Bleichtucher is the proper name for it; and each piece is marked at the end with the electoral arms—a red lion.

BOCADILLOS,

A Silesian manufacture, from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{3}{4}$ ells wide, and 58 ells or $36\frac{1}{2}$ yards long. This linen is folded double, and put up in round pieces, tied with white packthread and three pieces of light blue paper on each end, and in the middle, on one of which, near the end, is a silver plated paper with the superscrip-

* According to calculation eight Bielfeld ells are equal to five yards,

tion Bocadillos. The chief exportation of this kind of linen is made to Spain.

BRETAGNES,

Likewise a Silesian manufacture; it is from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{3}{4}$ ells wide, and is made up in pieces containing $11\frac{1}{2}$ Breslau ells in length, in the middle of the piece is a red paper, cut in the form of a star, with the number, which describes the quality, printed on it. When this linen is made, it is in pieces containing 60 ells in length, which, when bleached, are cut into five equal parts. It is always packed up in boxes containing 125 pieces each; two of these boxes are packed up, and sometimes even four, into one large chest made for that purpose, in order to prevent their getting wet, or receiving any damage on board the vessel in which they are exported. Patterns are taken from each box of 125 pieces, which accompanies the chest. The assortment of this linen is made by sworn examiners, properly appointed for that purpose. The greatest part is exported to America, and from thence to the West Indies, where it is used for sheeting and bed-ticks in the better families.

BOOK LINEN

Is called so from its being put up in the form of a book; it is commonly $1\frac{1}{4}$ ell in width, and 24 Leipsic ells in length; three pieces of it are usually tied together with a red linen ribbon. It is a blue-striped and checked kind of linen, manufactured in Bielfeld, and likewise in Saxony; the chief markets for it are America and the West Indies; where, in particular, the checked sort is used for seamen's shirts, and the striped for curtains, trousers, jackets, &c.

CASERILLOS.

This sort is made in Silesia, woven of raw yarn, and afterwards bleached; it is $1\frac{1}{2}$ ell wide, and put up in rolls, containing $19\frac{1}{4}$ Breslau ells, which is but the third part of a whole piece. Half a roll contains $28\frac{7}{8}$ ells; on the end is tacked a bit of red silk, with a number which indicates the quality. This linen is packed up in boxes of 100 rolls of $28\frac{7}{8}$ ells in each, or 150 rolls of $90\frac{1}{4}$ ells each; and patterns are taken from each. An assortment of Caserillos, commonly consists of 400 pieces, or rolls of $28\frac{7}{8}$ ells each, or 600 of $19\frac{1}{4}$. The chief market for this linen is Spain and Portugal.

CAVALLINES,

Likewise a Silesian manufacture, from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{3}{4}$ ell wide, and bleached. It is a very dense and strong kind of linen put up in round and long pieces, folded double, containing 58 Breslau ells; after it has been pressed, it is packed up in blue paper, on which is a silver plated paper, with a horse in a leaping posture, or sometimes two horses, one above another, from which it derives its name, given it by the Italians, for which market it is chiefly exported.

CHOLETS,

Is a raw and unbleached linen, chiefly of Silesian manufacture, $1\frac{1}{2}$ Breslau ell wide; it is folded singly in its whole breadth; each piece contains in length 58 Breslau ells; it is tied round with four slips of light blue paper, four fingers in breadth each. On the slip nearest the end, is a figure representing a silver crown, and a number describing the quality, printed on it. It is packed up in boxes, containing 50 pieces each; patterns are taken from each box, according to which the purchases and sales are made by the merchants. An assortment commonly consists of four boxes, or 200 pieces, and which have four different numbers. The narrow sorts of this linen are exported to Spain, where it is divided into four different qualities, viz: common, (called by the Spaniards) ordinarias; middling, entre-finas; fine, finas; superfine, y superiores. The wide sorts are exported to Lisbon; but the narrow to Oporto. The name of Cholets is derived from a place in Anjou, where these linens were first manufactured.

CREAS,

Are made in Saxony and Bohemia, and likewise attempted in Silesia; they are $1\frac{5}{8}$, $1\frac{1}{2}$, $1\frac{1}{4}$, and $1\frac{1}{8}$ Leipsic ells wide, and each piece contains 108 ells in length. The yarn of which this linen is made, is bleached before it is woven. The assortments are chiefly the following:

1. Those which are $1\frac{5}{8}$ ell wide, are called in Italy, telecorame $\frac{7}{4}$; and in England dowlas of 32 inches; and these two countries are the chief markets for it; but considerable exportations of this sort are made from Hamburg, Lubec, and Bremen, direct to America, and to the West Indies, where this sort of linen meets with quick and advantageous sales.

2. Those of $1\frac{1}{2}$ ell wide, are called in Spain, creas aneñas; and in France, creas larges; they are distinguished according to their quality in density and fineness, as well as to the countries to which the different sorts of them are mostly exported.

The common kind, called sleeked dowlas, is but ill adapted for the Spanish trade, and the lowest in quality; yet, on account of their fine weft, are finer than the rest.

The middling quality is only adapted for the Italian trade.

English sleeked dowlas, are of a cense quality; and loom dowlas is an uncommon fine and dense kind of linen. These two sorts are only woven of the best Meissen, Brunswick, and Halberstadt yarn, and solely destined for the English market.

3. Those that are $1\frac{1}{2}$ ell and $1\frac{1}{2}$ ell in width, are of the same quality. The chief markets for this sort of linen, are the upper parts of Italy and Spain; yet it is likewise sent in considerable quantities to Barbary, and in particular to Algiers and Tunis, by the way of Leghorn, where it is principally used as winding sheets for the dead.

4. Dowlas $\frac{3}{4}$, as they are called in England, is the fourth sort of creas $1\frac{1}{4}$ ell wide; they bear the same distinction with those of $1\frac{1}{2}$ ell wide, and both sorts are in pieces of an equal length, except that this sort is commonly made up in half pieces. The creas derive the name of Morlaix from the city of Morlaix, in Bretagne. To these creas belong likewise the rough dowlas, from $1\frac{1}{4}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}$ ell wide, and 108 Leipsic ells in length, which only differ from the common sort of creas, by being woven of raw yarn. They are mostly exported to Portugal, where they are called Pano Ferro.

DRUCK LINEN,

A Silesian manufacture, which by some is bleached quite white, and by others only half bleached. It is $1\frac{1}{2}$ ell in breadth. By some manufacturers it is left in its full length, as the pieces are made; by others it is divided into pieces, containing 58 ells each. It is taken off from the bleaching ground, without being dressed up. Many merchants or manufacturers leave the one end of the piece out, to which a piece of paper is fixed, marked with the number of ells it contains. Merchants, who give orders for this linen uncut, ought to notice precisely the length of the piece. The chief market for this sort of linen is England, but much is also exported to America and to the West Indies.

ESSEN LINEN

Is a very strong kind of linen, made near a little place called Essen. It is almost of the same quality as the Osnabruck linen, with which it has the same numbers; as 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, &c.

LOVENT LINEN

Is a good, strong, and dense sort of hempen linen, the yarn of which is spun entirely of hemp, and the web of hempen tow carefully spun. It is for the most part manufactured in the cities of Bergholzhausen, Versmolet, and Halle, and in the different parishes in their vicinities. The lengths of the pieces are very different, and contain from 50 to 60, 120 and sometimes 130 double ells. A double ell is what the manufacturers of this linen call a staple measure, containing four feet in length; and 100 of these ells are equal to 175 Flemish ells. But most of the pieces are between 100 and 120. The sales are made by 100 staple ells. The width of this linen ought to be one Flemish ell, according to the prescription, with the stamp of the staple office put to it, which contains the Prussian arms, viz. a black eagle, and the letters F. W. R. But many pieces are not of that width, and nevertheless there is a stamp on them. The colour of this linen is indifferent, so that a premium is fixed for that which is the best bleached. There are no certain numbers in the quality of it, although there should be, according to the laws of the staple-right. The whole length of the piece is put up in leaves, and one of the inward ends is marked with the running number of the manufacturer on each piece; then both sides are laid up together and tied with black pack-thread. Each piece is commonly marked with a crown on the top, with the name of the manufacturer in it, and a description of the quality. A bale of this linen commonly contains 18, 20, or 24 pieces, wrapped up in 60 or 100 double ells, of coarse Munsterland linen; however, the finest sort is packed up in boxes, containing 12 pieces each. This linen is mostly sent to Bremen, Hamburg, and Amsterdam. The lowest quality is exported to America and the West Indies, for the use of negro shirts, jackets, trousers, and likewise for cotton and coffee bags.

MEYER LINEN

Is a good strong kind of hempen linen, made in the principality of Lippe, and is sometimes called Lippish white linen.

MOBEL LINEN

Is manufactured in Silesia, Bohemia, and Saxony. It is of different breadths; the first sort is $1\frac{1}{4}$, the second $1\frac{1}{2}$, and the third $1\frac{3}{4}$ Leipsic ells. This linen is made of dyed yarn, interwoven into it, either striped or checked, and is divided into three different qualities—common, middling, and fine; but the price of it is fixed according to the width, colour, and nicety of the pattern; for if there are several different colours in a piece, then the piece is higher than that which has only one. It is put up in pieces of 72 Leipsic ells. The chief markets for it are Italy, Spain, America, and the West Indies, where it is made use of for all domestic purposes. Under the name of this linen are other sorts, with different descriptions.

1. ARABIAS. The width and length is equal to that above described, and there is no other difference between these two sorts, than that the stripes in the Arabias are of a red colour, interwoven with Turkish yarn. The price is fixed according to the fineness of the quality.

2. BONTONS are $1\frac{1}{2}$ and $1\frac{1}{4}$ Leipsic ell wide, and 60 ells long, mostly blue striped and checked, but of the lowest quality. They are commonly cut into three equal lengths or pieces, either of which contains 20 ells. The chief markets are America and the West Indies, where they are only used for seamens' shirts, cloths, &c.

MUNSTERLAND LINEN.

This is a sort of hempen linen, the breadth of it is equal to that which is called Lovent linen. The best quality of it can only be reckoned equal to the lowest sort of the former. It is mostly made in and about the cities of Lippstadt, Rillberg, Stromberg, and Paterborn. The worst quality is made in the two latter cities. The chief markets for it are America and the West Indies.

OSNABRUCK

Is a very strong and solid kind of hempen linen, manufactured in the bishoprick of Osnabruck. Its width is $1\frac{1}{2}$ Bremen ells, and from 100 to 103 staple or double ells in length. The exact measure of the piece is fixed to each by the staple office. The chief markets for it are America, the West Indies, and Spain.

Besides the Osnabruck linen already described, there is another sort of home-made linen manufactured in the county of Hoyer; especially in the districts of Syke and Tedinghausen. The yarn of which it is made is spun of flax, and the web of flaxen tow; it is put up in pieces, containing 72 double ells, and is about $1\frac{1}{4}$ ell wide. The only market for this sort of linen is the city of Bremen, the merchants of which buy it from the farmers, by whom it is made. It is mostly exported to Spain, and sometimes direct to America and the West Indies. The whole produce of linen in the county of Hoyer amounts to nearly 150,000 rix dollars per annum.

MELL LINEN

Falls under the very same description; the width, length, and quality are the same, only that this is bleached. It is manufactured in the parish of Mell, on which account it bears the name of Mell linen.

PADERBORN

Is a very coarse linen; the yarn of which it is made is spun from flaxen tow, and is only fit for packing linen, or for wrappers. It is made up in pieces containing from 21 to 22 Cologne ells.

PLATTILLES ROYALES,

A Silesian manufacture, $1\frac{1}{2}$, $1\frac{5}{8}$, and $1\frac{3}{4}$ Breslau ells wide, and 58 ells in length. It is a very fine and well bleached sort of linen, put up in the very same manner as the Cholets, only the slips of paper around it are of a violet colour, tied to it with red or white pack-thread. On the slip near the end of a piece is a silver paper, with the inscription Plattiles Reales, together with the number describing the quality. This linen is properly destined for the Spanish American and West Indian markets.

PLATTILES SIMPLES,

Likewise a Silesian manufacture, $1\frac{1}{2}$ ell wide, and $14\frac{1}{2}$ ells in length. The pieces are put up and tied in a round form with a white packthread, and then inclosed in large sheets of dark-blue paper, and tied again with white thread. A small silver-plated paper is commonly fixed near the end of the sheet, with the inscription, Bocadillos, or Plattiles Simples. Some manufacturers put a crown on it, and others a red paper, with differ-

rent inscriptions. These plattiles are in particular adapted for the Spanish trade; they are even exported in considerable quantities to the coast of Guinea, by the way of France.

RAVENSBERG.

This sort of linen was first made in the year 1800, and invented by a gentleman of the name of Ebeling, a merchant of the city of Bergholzhausen, and a considerable linen trader. It is made of the best and strongest quality of hempen tow, called Lovent linen, the quality of which is before described. A piece contains 50 Flemish ells in length. The pieces are put up single in their full width, and then committed to the press. It is of three different qualities, marked No. 1, 2, and 3; or sometimes it is numbered in this way $\frac{1}{1}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, and $\frac{1}{3}$, and afterwards tied at each end with blue pack-thread. Although it is an imitation of the Russian ravenducks, but inferior in quality, the lowest sorts of those are much finer, even, and better than the best sort of the Ravensberg linen, because the Russians spin the yarn designed for this purpose of pure hemp, without any intermixture of tow; whilst, in the county of Ravensberg, the yarn of which the linen is made, is but partly spun of pure hemp, the web being spun of hempen tow. However, the Ravensburg linen is very strong, and much cheaper than the Russian ravenducks.

ROUANES.

This is woven in the raw yarn, and afterwards bleached; it is partly manufactured in Silesia, and partly in Lausitz; it is two Breslau ells wide, and 84 ells in length, and put up in its full breadth in the form of a book, and tacked together with five tufts of red and green, or blue and green silk. The manufacturers in France fix another mark to the pieces, under which the number of the quality is written. Fifty pieces, divided into two numbers, commonly make up an assortment. The market for this linen is the West Indies.

SANGALLETENS

May be had of any colour; they are from 1' to $1\frac{3}{4}$ ells wide, and 18 or 24 Flemish ells in length. This sort of linen is woven

of raw yarn, and afterwards bleached ; but that which is to be dyed in black is left unbleached ; that intended for other colours is something more than half bleached ; but that which is to have a rose colour must be perfectly white. This linen is frequently sent to Hamburg to be dyed, and has a preference to that which is dyed in Silesia. It is cut in pieces of different lengths ; those which contain $22\frac{1}{2}$ Breslau ells are mostly exported to Spain, where they call them *de 15 varas*. It is folded double and inclosed in a paper that has the same colour of the piece which is inclosed within, and which is made for this particular purpose, with a sign on the top of it. Those pieces that contain 10 ells in length are sometimes called Hollandillas ; it is owing to a distinction made in the tariff of the Spanish duties between Sangalas and Sangaletas : the duties on the first are equal to the Hollandillas, and the latter are frequently called in Spain *lustrinas de lino*, and there serve chiefly for the lining of hats. The name of Sangalotten is originally derived from St. Gall, in Switzerland, where this sort of linen was first manufactured.

SCHLEIER,

Or Silesian lawn, is woven of raw yarn, and made in the manner of cambric. It is mostly manufactured in Silesia, about Hirschberg, and likewise in Saxony, Suabia, and in Switzerland. It is $1\frac{1}{2}$ ell wide, and, when first made, 54 Breslau ells in length, which, however, is cut into four different pieces, containing $13\frac{1}{2}$ ells each. The numbers, describing the different qualities, are written on bits of paper and tacked on each piece, after which they are inclosed in black paper and tied with white packthread. The different assortments and qualities of these lawns are the same as those mentioned before. The 6-4th raw long lawns are particularly destined for the English market, as well as those bleached in Silesia, and pass by the name of 6-4 Hamburg bleached long lawn. The 7-4 lawns are mostly exported to France for printing.

STEINHAGËR LINEN

Is a very dense, fine, and well bleached linen, made in the small market town of Steinhagen, in the neighbourhood of the city of Bielfeld. It is put up in pieces, containing 20 Cologne double ells each, and sold by the piece : it is only made in this

small place ; on account of which it is very scarce, and the price high. It is mostly packed up in boxes, and exported to America by the way of Bremen and Hamburg, where there is frequently a great demand for it.

TECKLENBURG.

This is a very strong and lasting sort of hempen linen, manufactured in the county of Tecklenburg, the materials of which are the same as those of the Lovent linen, and made in the very same manner ; yet it looks not so fine, on account of its not being calendered, after it has been measured at the staple office. The length of the pieces are very unequal, and contain from 70 to 100 double ells a piece, and sometimes more than that. Its width is the same as that of the Lovent linen. Its quality is distinguished by the name of upperband and underband. Upperband is that which the staple officer judges to be the best quality, and the arms of the country are put on the end of the piece, above the white string with which it is tied, together with the number of ells it contains, and the name of the chief staple officer. The same is done to that which is called underband, but with this distinction, that these marks are put below the string, which denotes that it is of an inferior quality. Both sorts of this linen are exported to America and the West Indies, in very great quantities, both from Bremen and Hamburg, where it always meets with a ready sale, even when the trade in other kinds of linen is dull.

WAHRENDORP.

This is a very fine bleached linen, the quality of which is almost equal to that of Bielfeld ; it is made in the city of Wahrendorp, and in the neighbouring market town of Freckenhorst, in great quantities. The yarn of which it is woven is spun in the county of Ravensburg. It is somewhat looser, and not so well made as the Bielfeld linen, neither is it quite so well bleached. Wahrendorp, and the neighbouring market towns, have but an indifferent bleaching ground for their linen, in consequence of which it is frequently sent to Bielfeld to be bleached and prepared for sale ; for which reason the Wahrendorp linen is mostly exported from Bielfeld. A piece contains 60 Cologne ells, or 45 Flemish ells ; it is commonly sold in

whole pieces; the length of the whole piece is first folded double, and made into a square form, after which it is put under a heavy press, and then inclosed in sheets of light blue paper, and tied with white packthread. The name of the manufacturer, with the measure of each piece, and the quality, is written on a piece of parchment, and tacked to the edge of the linen. It is exported to America and the West Indies, by the way of Bremen and Hamburg.

WEBEN.

This sort of linen is manufactured in Silesia, Saxony, and Bohemia. It is between $1\frac{5}{8}$ and $1\frac{3}{4}$ Leipsic ells wide, and 72 ells in length; some is made of bleached, and some of raw yarn, and bleached afterwards. It is mostly exported to Italy. That which is made of raw yarn, and afterwards bleached, looks finer than the other, yet the quality of it is not so good and lasting as that of the yarn, which has been bleached before weaving.

WESER LINEN

Is a very thin and loose sort of hempen linen, manufactured in the principality of Lippe, in the neighbourhood of Lemgo, Detmold, Blomberg, Horn, &c. by the name of Weser linen; and it is known in America, likewise, as Munsterland linen.

CHAPTER II.

Of the River Elbe. Its Communication with other Rivers and the Interior. How it might be extended. Of Hamburg. Its Localities. Sketch of its late and present State. List of Ships arrived there, from all Places, in 1802. Tolls and Duties payable there. Colonial Produce imported in several Years. Linens brought into Hamburg from all Places. The Bank. Account of Grain imported and exported. British Factory. Monies, Weights, and Measures. Channels by which the Trade of Hamburg is carried on during the Blockade. Alphabetical Specification of Goods imported into Hamburg from all Places in 1802.

THE RIVER ELBE.

THIS fine river, which is of the greatest importance to Germany, and which may be made so to Europe, from the branches of those rivers which fall into it, may easily be made to communicate with others which have an opposite direction in their course, running to distant parts of Europe. It has its source in Silesia, not far from the Carpathian mountains, from whence spring the Oder and the Vistula, at an inconsiderable distance from each other, and which we have already described.

The Elbe runs along Bohemia; the rivers Sazawa and Moldau unite with each other, and run some distance, when they again unite with the Berauna, above Prague, and fall into the

Elbe above Melnick. The Elbe begins to be navigable at Leutmeritz, and continues its course, taking in the river Eger, which has its source in Franconia, runs by Dresden and Magdeburg in this distance, receiving the Mulde, Pleis, Elster, Sala, and rivers of less note. The Havel, which communicates with the Oder, through Potzdam, and Berlin, described under the head of Stettin, falls into the Elbe, which pursues its course, and above Hamburg, divides into several branches, forming many islands, the current again uniting below that city; the depth of water admits the largest merchant ships from all quarters, and where their masts have been seen to form almost a forest: after running about a hundred English miles farther, it falls into the German ocean, forming some islands and many sand banks in the river, as well as its mouth; its navigation from thence to Hamburg begins to be difficult, even after passing Heligoland island.

The inland commerce from Hamburg, by means of the Elbe, is very considerable, and more extensive than the Rhine, or any other river in Europe; but it labours under several restrictions and inconveniences.

All vessels coming from Bohemia and Saxony are obliged to unload their goods at Magdeburg, into Brandenburg vessels, except a few that come from Saxony with earthen ware, from Pirna with mill-stones, and from Bohemia with fruit, which are exempted on account of the danger or difficulty of unloading. Hanoverian vessels are permitted to go no farther than Schnackenburg. This transport of goods has very much decreased from what it was formerly, especially since the Emperor of Germany has tried to assist the trade of Triest, and the King of Prussia that of Stettin.

Silesia has lately had its goods partly forwarded by way of Stettin; and Saxony has been deterred from sending goods by the Elbe, on account of the extraordinary high Prussian duties on that river.

There is a far greater internal navigation from Hamburg throughout the continent than is easily imagined; this communication extends by means of the Elbe from the western and northern extremities of the German empire through Prussia to Austria, and even to the very interior of Russia, the Black and Caspian seas. We shall mention first the canals from the Elbe, by means of the Havel and the Spree to the Oder, from thence up the Warta and the Netze, through the canal to the Vistula at Bromburg, whence the route may be taken by two ways, either up the Vistula and the Bug to the Muchawitz,

or by the Frische haff and Konigsburg up the Prugel, the canal from thence to the Njemen, up that river, and through the Oginsky canal, and both these channels after dividing in the Vistula at Bromburg, are united again by the Pripecz which falls into the Dnieper, so down that river to the Black sea. The Elbe might be made to communicate with the Danube by means of the several rivers which have their sources near each other, containing a sufficiency of water, and respectively falling into those rivers; the Sazawa into the Elbe, and the Iglaw which unites with other rivers falling into the Danube above Presburg; likewise the Moldau might unite the Danube considerably higher up, which river again might be connected with the Rhine, either by means of the Necker or the Main, or by both; by such a communication in the interior of the continent, commerce might be carried on with uninterrupted career, from one extremity of Europe to the other, without the possibility of France molesting its progress, unless it subjugated Germany altogether.

If the same spirit prevailed in the empire of Germany as has been shewn by the illustrious monarch of Russia in his dominions, the interior navigation of Germany would not only produce a source of riches to themselves, but give great facility to, and increase commerce in general.

A beginning may be said to be made in Hungary; a canal is completed by means of the Theis, which falls into the Danube; this canal was finished in 1803, in which year 337 vessels passed through, carrying 287320 centner, 27050 eimer, and 243560 mezen of merchandise, of different descriptions.*

It is exceedingly to be regretted that so fine a river as the Elbe, with so many communications, and running through such an extent of country, should in its interior course be cramped and impeded by so many tolls and imposts, and so circumstanced at its mouth as it at present is by the blockade. There appears to be an unbounded jealousy, and unison of unfortunate events, and a jarring of interests to defeat the great advantages nature has given this fine river. It is not however unlikely but that this river at a future period will convey the principal commerce

* Many years ago it was projected to unite, by a canal, the Weser and the Elbe, in order to transport goods from Bremen to Stadt, and so to Hamburg; for this purpose a sluice was first built near Stadt, at an exorbitant expense, but when the canal was begun to be dug, from the nature of the soil, it was found to be quite impracticable, so that the sluice remains without a canal.

of Europe ; the latter part of the first chapter of the first book, will better explain the reason of this suggestion.

Cuxhaven is the port of Hamburg, just entering from the North sea, from whence the packets sailed during the last war to England, but at present they are driven from thence to Husum and Gottenburg.

HAMBURG.

In the first chapter of this book we have already shewn the rise and progress of this city, and the high rank it held in the Hanseatic league, towards the decline of which, it began to gain the principal part of the northern trade ; after the dissolution of that league, for a series of years, it preserved with almost uninterrupted advantage the chief commerce of the north of Europe ; when in this state, the French revolution laid the foundation for its subsequent commercial opulence and extensive intercourse with Europe and the world, by taking possession of Holland, and banishing trade and navigation from thence. Hamburg, from its advantageous and convenient situation, both in the approach for its external and facility for its internal commerce, its institutions, form of government, and commercial spirit of the people, drew at once the whole commerce of Europe into its lap. When France over-run Flanders and Holland, commerce was then driven into the Ems, the Weser, and the Elbe.

Hamburg, which had always been called the free imperial Hanseatic city, under the protection of the German Empire and other states, has experienced most strange vicissitudes within the last thirteen years. Till the beginning of the French revolution it had a regular settled trade, which it quietly enjoyed for a series of years. From 1789 till 1792 the French were the means of increasing its trade a little, by many of their operations, on account of their want of credit and the scarcity of grain, and other public wants, partly supplied by means of that city ; but no sooner had the French entered Holland, than at once the commerce of Europe flew to Hamburg, which became the focus and central point, through which the trade of the European continent passed to Great Britain, as well as from thence and other quarters through it again to the continent. All at once, from a regular secure trade, we find a forest of masts riding in the Elbe ; merchants flocking from all nations ; the whole business of the north, the east, and the south of

Europe, as well as the west, passing through Hamburg; it having the only direct exchange course open, facilitated by the old establishment of a bank on the most secure plan of any in Europe.

The prodigious influx of commerce all at once pouring into Hamburg from all quarters, the moment the French entered Holland, was unexampled till 1799, when commercial credit experienced a great shock not confined to this city, but which went throughout Europe and the world; this impaired its trade some little, but there was no other channel: the events in the north in 1800 repeated that shock, owing to the northern confederacy, calculated to strike at the very vitals of Great Britain, by taking possession of Hamburg. This was effected, by the Danes, on the 29th of March 1801, which put a complete stop to every thing, for a short time; and when the Danes were about taking an account, in order to confiscate British property, the battle at Copenhagen once more gave freedom to Hamburg, and the state of Europe was such that necessity constrained the trade, immediately to pass through that city again with increased confidence all the following year, and still more so during the peace; for, even then, as trade had the last few years got accustomed to the new channels, it was not so suddenly diverted from thence, as it had been driven thither. The trade of that year, in a period of general peace, when all the old avenues were opened, and commerce might be said to be on a level again, still Hamburg preserved a greater share of the trade than was expected. The war breaking out again betwixt Great Britain and France in 1803, and the French army taking possession of Hanover, violating the integrity of the Germanic body, and the guarantees being passive spectators, Great Britain was compelled to declare the rivers Elbe and Weser in a state of blockade; thus, on the animated Elbe, which used to be covered with the flags of almost all nations, and a general bustle consequent upon great and extended commerce in a narrow compass, there is to be seen nothing but a few dismantled and old ships, and a few fishing vessels and others which can creep along to Tonningen, and other places upon the Elbe. Such have been the vicissitudes of this great city, and such is its present state; and although all the powers on the continent are more interested in its freedom, and the security of its commerce than Great Britain, yet they remain tame spectators of the aggressions committed on it, we must hope that it will not long remain so; those powers may now be convinced that Great Britain, can carry on her commerce by different channels, of which we

shall soon treat generally; and as Hamburg will still continue to be the first commercial city on the continent, we shall give some general remarks upon its trade and local conveniences. We have already described the Elbe, as being the source from which its wealth and commerce first sprang, and was produced.

Hamburg stands upon the north bank of the Elbe, about a hundred miles from the North sea, at the south-east extremity of Holstein, something more than half an English mile from Altona. Hamburg is inclosed by ramparts and regular fortifications thrown up round the city, in the form almost of a semi-circle, terminating on the banks of the Elbe: through the centre of the city runs the small rivulet Alster, which has its rise a few English miles to the north of Hamburg, forming a beautiful sheet of water before it reaches the city, and another within the walls, on the skirt of the south side of which, is a promenade, close in the city; upon the ramparts round the town is a beautiful parade, likewise a carriage road, pleasantly bordered with trees, from whence is a fine view of the surrounding country, the walls being the height of the tops of the houses. From the political state of Hamburg, and the French being close around them, last year the cannon were all sold and taken away, the shells broken, and the amunition disposed of, and part of the ramparts cut down; indeed, if it is to be neglected by the powers guaranteeing its security and independence, the ramparts had much better be levelled, so that it will not become tenable either to friends or foes. The example set by Lubec, in demolishing her ramparts, is praise-worthy, but it would be more so in Hamburg, if those ramparts were demolished, the constitution of the republic would not be injured; it would still have the same consideration it now holds; protection it has none.. When we consider the great improvements which have been made in other places by destroying the ramparts, and the influx of strangers, increase of buildings, and improvements, as well as that riches have augmented, we may expect, should Hamburg hereafter be properly protected, and secured in her independence, that she must flourish beyond any other. Her ramparts now useless, being levelled, the conveniences would increase on one side, docks for shipping and commercial conveniences might be established on the other.

Hamburg, standing on the banks of the Elbe, has no docks to receive shipping, only a small inlet, or recess, so that the vessels must all lay in the stream; others again are moored to piles, forming a sort of harbour inclosed from the river, but all perfectly secure. The town is intersected with a number of

canals, in which lighters convey the merchandise from the ships to the warehouses, which are mostly at the back of the merchants' houses, the canals running behind them ; the other side forming a similar range of buildings and streets. It must, however, be understood, that, like all old cities and towns, there is not any regular order here, as in one part of Amsterdam.

The whole city of Hamburg does not stand equally low ; it has gentle rising ground and gentle descent, so as to carry off impurities. In many parts of the town the streets are very narrow, and the houses built in the old fashioned style, with large halls, or entrances, in which merchandise is frequently stowed when warehouse room is scarce. Upon the whole, the local convenience of Hamburg for commerce is better than most northern cities, and that of the ships of all sizes getting close up to the city is not one of the least ; it is the only one in the north-west part of the continent, or indeed the whole north of Europe, (Copenhagen and Antwerp excepted), which enjoys such advantages.

The following table will shew the number of vessels which arrived at Hamburg, from abroad, and those vessels properly built for internal navigation.

Ships that entered the Port of Hamburg.

SHIPS.	1794	1795	1796	1797
In all from foreign places	1820	2107	1919	1869
Of which Americans	208	236	110	116
Arrived from the Elbe, Berlin, Lauenburg, Luneburg, and Magdeburg	942			
Greenland ships	25	18	19	19

Ships and Vessels of all Descriptions arriving at Hamburg.

	1798	1799	1800	1801	1802	1803	1804
From foreign places	2005	1960	1895	2177	2108	1615	None, on account of the blockade, its trade being in the Danish ports.
Inland craft, &c.	143	174	137				
From Berlin				43	41	30	
Lauenburg				118	84	79	
Luneburg				234	200	163	
Magdeburg				37	34	44	
Buxthude						15	
Hamburg						1	
	2148	2134	2032	2605	2467	1947	

I have already mentioned, that the peace of 1802 did not divert the trade from Hamburg in the manner which might have been supposed; on the contrary, it nearly equalled 1801, which surpassed that of any other year in the zenith of its recent commercial eclat. We shall give an alphabetical list from whence ships arrived at Hamburg, and the number from each port in 1802.

List of Ships arrived at Hamburg, arranged alphabetically.

From whence arrived.	veft.	From whence arrived.	veft.	From whence arrived.	veft.	From whence arrived.	veft.
Aalborg	7	Edam	14	La Flotte and } St. Martin }	1	Rauderveen	3
Aarhuys	1	Eckwarder- } speicker }	2	Lancaster	1	Rendsburg	7
Abo	3	Elbing	8	Leer	16	Riga	19
Abuserfiel	2	Elfineur	1	Leith	26	Rincopen	21
Ackumerfiel	4	Embden	49	Lemmer	2	Ripen	2
Algefeira	1	Enckhuysen	29	Liebau	1	Rochelle	2
Alicant	2	Enckhuferfiel	1	Libourne	3	Ronnebeck	2
Amsterdam	135	Effens	1	Lieuwarden	1	Roftoc	27
Antwerp	9	Exon	2	Lisbon	44	Rotenspiecker	1
Archangel	25	Faversham	10	Liverpool	25	Rotterdam	42
Bayonne	10	Faxoe	2	Leghorn	11	Rouen	24
Baltimore	4	Feddewarden	1	London	216	Rusterfiel	9
Barcelona	2	Fegesack	20	Dover	1	Salem	7
Barth	1	Fehndam	1	Lubec	12	Sardam	44
Benferfiel	2	Flensburg	4	Lynn	1	Savannah	1
Bergen	16	Frederickstadt	4	Mackum	8	Scarborough	1
Bilboa	6	Gallipoly	8	Madeira	1	Schönhofen	2
Bilboa and Mar- blehead	1	Geffle	2	Malaga	30	Senegal	2
Bombay	1	Genoa	5	Marblehead	1	Seville	4
Boston	6	Glasgow	18	Marienfiel	4	Smaldied	1
Bordeaux	53	Greenock	3	Marfeilles	1	Steinheuserfiel	3
Von der Bracke	3	Gluckstadt	26	Medenblick	4	Stettin	23
Bremen	95	Gosport	1	Memel	4	Stockholm	14
Bridlington	4	Gothenburg	8	Mentone	1	Stralsund	30
Bristol	5	Graudiep	6	Messina	11	Sudwesthoren	1
Buenos Ayres	3	Grangemouth	1	Montevideo	2	Sunderland	17
Burhave	2	Grenock	11	Muyden	4	Swartfluyt	1
Cadiz	5	Groningen	4	Nantz	8	St. Domingo	2
Calmar	1	Groenland	25	Naples	1	St. Jago	1
Canton in China	1	Guernsey	3	Neuenfiel	1	St. Petersburg	16
C. of G. Hope	1	Halmstadt	1	Neuharlingerfiel	7	St. Thomas	12
Carlscrona	5	Harlingen	2	Neustadt	1	St. Ubes	3
Carlshaven	1	Havannah	8	Neustadtgodens	1	Teneriffe	4
Carolinerfiel	8	Havre de Grace	8	Newcastle	111	Tettenbittel	3
Cassano	1	Helegoland	1	New York	7	Tertens	1
Cefferonia	1	Helsingfors	1	Niekerk	1	Tondorn	1
Cette	6	Hever	2	Norden	5	Tonningen	26
Charleston	19	Hittland	6	Oldenburg	1	Torgau	3
Christiania	1	Hockfiel	16	Olufswig	1	Triest	13
Christianfund	1	Honfleur	1	Ostend	2	Udewalla	4
Colchester	1	Horumerfiel	5	Oporto	38	Utrecht	4
Copenhagen	8	Hull	83	Philadelphia	9	Variel	1
Cuxhaven	2	Hufum	7	v. d. Peckel	1	Vlardingén	3
Dantzic	78	Jetting	2	Pillau	8	Warburg	1
Demmen	1	Jersey	2	Plymouth	4	Wells	1
Dieppe	7	Île de France	4	Port a Pierre	1	Weender	2
Dockum	2	Kadingfiel	1	Porto Cabello	2	Westerwieck	1
Dort	1	Kasko	1	Port Orotava	1	Wilderfang	1
Dorumerfiel	1	Kiel	1	Port Republicain	1	Wismar	2
Dover	1	Kinderdieck	2	Porto Vedro } and Muros }	1	Wolgast	3
Droback	1	Kirkaldy	3	Portsmouth	1	Worden	1
Drontheim	11	Konigsburg	15	Do. in America	1	Yarmouth	10
Dublin	2	La Guira	3	Randers	8	Yftadt	1
Dunkirk	6					Zante	3
						Zirckfee	1

By the foregoing statement from 215 places 2108 ships arrived.

Berlin	41
Lauenburg	84
Luneburg	200
Madgeburg	34

Total 2467 vessels.

In the Year 1802, the Whale Fishery from the Elbe was,

Ships.	Places from whence fitted out.	No. of fish caught.	Casks of blubber.	Produced barrels of oil.
15	Hamburg	62	1011	3409
10	Altona	21	304	1536
11	Gluckstadt	24	346	3124
2	Eastern ports	8	145	508
38		115	1806	8577

From the above list of the arrivals of ships at Hamburg, some idea may be formed of its extensive commerce, being a free port, admitting ships, manufactures, and produce of all countries and nations, without any restraint or restriction. A correct idea of the value of the imports and exports cannot be given, but an account of them is stated by weight, measure, tale, or package. They have a custom house, where a trifling duty is paid, according to the distance of the port from whence the merchandise is imported and exported, which is paid at the Werk or Herren-Zoll, at the Baaker or Bürger-Zoll, or at the Admiralitäts-Zoll; all which are of the nature of customs, and paid sometimes according to the value of the goods, of others by the weight, measure, or package. On goods exported for foreign account, a separate small duty is paid, called schaum-burgher-zoll. There is a printed tariff of the Hamburg duties, which are but trifling. In doubtful cases the merchant can inquire at the respective offices, as it is not allowed that a published tariff of the Hamburg duties is correct.

I have already mentioned a duty or toll paid at Stadt, which, though trifling, is upon the ship as well as the cargo. The captain must give a manifest to a prescribed form. Besides these duties, another is paid to the town of Stadt, which is called a ruder-zoll for ships only, but very trifling; this is paid at Brunshausen custom-house. A tariff has been published of these rates, but some doubts have been thrown out of the accuracy of this also, and it is not always abided by.

I have already stated, that an account could not be given of the value of the imports or exports to and from Hamburg; but an account, however, is kept and published every year of the quantity of each articles, by the package, number, or weight, as well as the ports or places from whence they have come, which, though voluminous, we give at the end of this chapter as concise as possible; the nature and extent of the trade will be seen by it, and by the list of shipping, which is already given. Of the most important articles, which are sugar and coffee imported, and linens exported, and from whence, the last were received the following particulars will give some notion.

West India Produce and German Linens brought into Hamburg.

Quantity		1794	1795	1796	1797	1798
Coffee	pounds	11714000	42000000	39000000	39830000	46000000
Sugar			63000000	82000000	96000000	98000000
Linen from Berlin	casks	88	42	38	37	13
• • •	bales	2600	2189	2804		2107
• • •	chefts	12	23	263	258	337
• • •	pieces					80
Linen from Luneburg	casks	88	80	77	64	
• • •	bales	697	422	173	83	4
• • •	chefts	4387	3314	3115	2930	402
• • •	pieces	1758	1710		332	
Do. from Madgeburg	casks				2	
• • •	bales	109	139	277	134	46
• • •	chefts	6	2	7		
• • •	pieces	19020	26900	32031	18976	18127

The Imports of Sugar and Coffee into Hamburg in the Years 1800 and 1801, exclusive of what Goods were entered by Orders for Transit.

SUGAR.	Casks.		Chefts.		Bags.		Seroons.	
	1800	1801	1800	1801	1800	1801	1800	1801
From England	26529	27058	12507	18178	7952	4223	1948	9
Portugal		13	21048	36076				
America	2961	3111	21901	40163	4894	590		443
Spain		2		191		8		
East and West Indies	1890	1411	1656	6100	1141	407	178	36
Holland, France, Copenhagen, Lubec, & Bremen	283	289	691	611		700	27	50

COFFEE.	Casks.		Bags.		Bales.		Pounds.	
	1800	1801	1800	1801	1800	1801	1800	1801
	47436	36267	105718	95080	13997	22753	24167	6915

The linen trade forms a most important branch in the exports by the Elbe as well as the Weser; for which reason an account of them is already given along with others, under the head of Germany, thus much I must here mention, that the linens chiefly exported by way of Hamburg are from Silesia and Brunswick, and some from Halberstadt, Westphalia, Bremen, &c. from those quarters contiguous to the rivers which run by that city, and the manufacture of its vicinity.

Hamburg being a republic, and owing its importance to commerce, it may be supposed that it has every institution and system which can protect and promote trade. It may truly be said, that its late and even its present commercial consequence are owing in a great degree to its bank: so long as this exists unmolested, from the very nature of its institution, whatever may be the political events resulting from the present posture of the continent, Hamburg will never be ruined: destroy her bank, or its credit, then the trade of Hamburg will take wings and direct its flight elsewhere.

Although the principles on which this bank is established are so well known, and being upon the most secure footing, we shall just mention the heads, for the satisfaction, in these critical times, of those merchants who are by chance unacquainted with them.

This bank was established in the year 1619 as a security bank, or rather a deposit for specie: at the time it is lodged, the precise amount is fixed, and written into the bank books in the name of the person depositing the specie, which is written off again, or transferred from one to another, instead of the specie itself being transferred in every payment; this gives the greatest facility to the commerce of the place. This bank never discounts nor issues out paper, so that for every transfer there is actual specie laying in the bank, which can at all times be immediately produced: it must be observed, silver only is received, and in cases of the utmost commercial distress, gold, in no form or shape, is ever received by way of deposit.

The wise and prudent regulations it is under must give this bank an inviolable credit. The senate has no control over it; but the city is reponsible; and the burghers have four directors of their own choice for the due administration of its affairs.

The citizens of Hamburg only are allowed to keep an account at the bank, on the opening of which, they must pay 150 marks banco; it has regulated hours for transacting business, and limited sums, below which nothing can be written off, and a trifling fee must be paid for any sum below a fixed one.

The bank is shut every year, from the 31st of December to the 15th of January, to settle its annual accounts; all merchants having their acceptances or payments falling due within this period, must have their funds ready before the closing of the bank, which has an effect both upon the exchange and the discounts at that period.

The EXCHANGE is a very old building, and certainly, for a place of the commercial consequence of Hamburg, the meanest one in Europe; the city, or the merchants, have it in contemplation to build a new one, and if a projected plan should be carried into effect, it will do their spirit great credit.

The EXCHANGE-HALL, lately instituted by an individual, is one of the first in Europe, and ought to be copied in all great commercial places; it is a large elegant building, with a hall nearly half the size of their present exchange, from whence branch out reading rooms, where all the newspapers, commercial information, accounts and publications are taken in; lists of shipping from all quarters, and regular lists, every post, of ships arriving and sailing to and from all parts; in short, it is a place where commercial information, in every shape wanted, may be obtained: it is supported by subscription. The librarian and superintendent is Mr. Nemnich, who has given many valuable publications and much useful information to the commercial world. To the credit of Liverpool, it has already two or three institutions of this kind, upon a scale becoming its commercial importance.

Amongst the many excellent institutions at Hamburg, is one deserving the example of other states and nations; it has granaries generally kept well stocked with grain, from whence, in times of necessity, the poor are supplied at reasonable rates.

It has also a traffic in foreign grain, as well as what it receives by the Elbe, and is becoming an important article of merchandise.

The British Factory, or the Merchant Adventurer's Company, still retains some of its ancient privileges. Here is a chapel belonging to it, and a chaplain, for whom a house is provided.

There are numerous manufactures here, but that of sugar-refining is carried on to a greater extent than at any place in Europe, and, unquestionably, they make the finest quality. They supply Russia, by way of Lubec, and the ports in the Baltic and Germany, where refined sugar is not prohibited; and some is even exported to other countries.

As the great commerce betwixt Great Britain and Germany principally passes through Hamburg, it is unnecessary here to enter into the details of the articles of importation and exportation; this is, during the present situation of Holland, known to every one concerned in trade, shipping, or manufactures; and we shall treat it more fully under one general head: Bremen and Embden participate in the commerce by means of their respective rivers and interior communication.

When we come to mention, however, the manner of selling at Hamburg, the merchandise imported, as well as that purchased for exportation, the customs are so variable and different in the weights, measures, banco or current money, the fixed and fluctuating agio betwixt the two, that to enter into so wide a field, would exceed the bounds of this work to give the details.

It has been already mentioned, that, in consequence of the blockade of the Elbe, no shipping can get up to or from Hamburg; its present trade to and from the North sea is therefore carried on chiefly through the Danish ports, and particularly through Tønningen, under the head of which place and Rendsburg the reader will find some remarks, together with others, made on the conveyance of goods from the North sea to Hamburg; and under the head of Lubec will be found the communication of Hamburg with the Baltic sea. All these details combined, with the general observations which follow on the trade of the Elbe, Weser, and Ems, will, it is hoped, be found to contain every useful information relative to the trade of Germany.

Monies, Weights, and Measures.

They keep books and accounts in marks, schillings, and pfennings, reckoning the mark at 16 schillings, each schilling at 12 pfennings.

A rix dollar has 3 marks, 48 schillings, or 576 pfennings.

The exchange dollar, according to which bills of exchange between Hamburg and Amsterdam are given, is 2 marks, or 32 schillings, or 64 grot Flemish banco.

A pound Flemish is divided into 20 schillings, and the schilling into 12 grot or pfennings or 240 grots the Flemish.—
 £. 4 Flemish are equal to 10 dollars, or 30 marks banco.

<i>Hamburg receives in</i>		<i>And pays for the same, more or less, at Hamburg.</i>
Amsterdam	33 stivers banco	1 doll. of 2 m. banc.
Ditto	109 rix dolls. curr.	100 rix dolls. banco.
Augsburg	142 ditto	100 ditto.
Basel	3 livr. n. l'd'or, at 16 liv.	100 marks banco.
Breslau	1/. banco	42 schills. Lub. banc.
Copenhagen	124 rix dolls. curr.	100 rix dolls. banco.
Franckfort	142 r. Exchange	100 rix dolls. banco.
Genoa	1 pezze of 5 $\frac{3}{4}$ /. fuori di banc.	76 pf. Flem. banco.
Leipsic	{ 142 rix doll. curr. or in }	100 rix dolls. banco.
Naumberg		
Lisbon	1 crusado	44 pf. Flem. banco.
London	1/. sterling	34 schill. 4 pf. F. b.
Nürnberg	142 rix dollar curr.	100 rix dolls. banco.
Paris	{ 1 ecu. of 3 fr. or 100 fr. }	25 schill. Lub. banc.
Bordeaux		
Venice	1 duco di banco.	86 pf. Flemish.
Vienna	{ 142 rix dollars curr.	100 rix dolls. banco.
Prague		

The dollar by which bills of exchange of Hamburg on Amsterdam, as also of Amsterdam and Antwerp on Hamburg, is reckoned, is 2 marks, or 32 schillings Lubsch. or 64 pfennings Flemish banco.

In Hamburg there are different ways of Payment.

* MONIES.

1. Specie money; this consists in specie rix dollars, of which 8 pieces are reckoned to the rough Cologne mark, at 14 loth, 4 grains fine.

Such a rix dollar is taken in at the bank, at 3 marks, and the owner is allowed an agio of 1 per mille; accordingly he gets written down in the books for 1000 rix dollars specie, with

* There is no place in Europe where there is a greater variety of specie than in Hamburg, the exchanging of which is a great business, and a profitable one too.

An Englishman, a couple of years ago, a little puzzled by the variety of coin, and a little nettled at the rate he sold his guineas for the currency of the place, by way of seeing the agility in this branch of traffic at Hamburg, he took a guinea to change from one coin to another, till he actually reduced it to eightpence in a very few hours, when he ceased the experiment.

3003 mark banco; but when such rix dollars are received of the bank, $1\frac{5}{8}$ per mille agio is reckoned thereon; and he who receives this has written off from his account, for 1000 rix dollars specie, 3004 marks, 14 schillings banco.

2. Banco valuta is money in which the bank books are kept, and the exchange estimated on every place to which Hamburg exchanges direct.

3. Current money is that which circulate in the daily expenditure of the town, and is 20 to 29 per cent. less than banco.

4. Light money; this consists of the following kinds at the annexed prices, as

Old louis-d'or, Brunswick Carl d'ors at 5 rix dollars, or at 15 marks.

Ducats, at $2\frac{3}{4}$ rix dollars, at $8\frac{1}{4}$ mark guilders in gold, at 6 marks.

Specie banco, and Alberts dollars; as, likewise, convention dollars, and louis blanc at 4 marks.

Old rix guilders, new $2\frac{2}{3}$ pieces, convention guilders, and half louis blanc at 2 marks.

Single $\frac{1}{3}$ pieces and quarter convention dollars, or half guilders, at 1 mark.

The sorts of money, that circulate at Hamburg, are exchanged the following way against banco valuta.

Specie rix dollars are reckoned at 3 marks, and ducats at 6 marks, on this 1 per cent. more or less, agio is given; according to which then 100 marks in specie rix dollars, or in ducats, make 101, more or less, mark banco. Sometimes the ducats are reckoned at 6 marks, 1 per cent. more or less, worse than banco, and make then in 101 marks in ducats, more or less, 100 marks banco.

The Uso in Hamburg is on bills of exchange from all parts of Germany, 14 days sight, and the day of acceptance is included; from France and London, 2, $2\frac{1}{2}$, and 3 months after date; from Portugal, Spain, Venice, as well as other places, the date is variable.

WEIGHTS.

Commercial weight is the shippound of $2\frac{1}{2}$ centner, or 20 lispounds of 14 lb. each, being 280 lb. they have another shippound reckoned in the carriage of goods, 320 lb. that is 20 lispounds of 16 lb. each.—According to these weights some goods are bought and sold, and many by the pound weight.

1 pound has 2 marks, 16 ounces, 32 loths, 128 quintins, or 512 pennyweights.

104 lb. in Hamburg is	112 lb. in London
102 ditto	100 in Amsterdam
80 ditto	89 in Dantzic
34 ditto	33 in Copenhagen
86 ditto	100 in Pernau
8 ditto	9 in Revel
19 ditto	22 in Riga
38 ditto	45 in Russia.

MEASURES.

33 Hamburg feet make	31 English feet
83 ditto ells	52 yds. English
6 ditto ditto	5 ells Brabant
23 ditto ditto	21 — Danish
142 ditto ditto	141 — Lubec
45 ditto ditto	47 — Pernau
14 ditto ditto	15 — Revel
22 ditto ditto	23 — Riga
31 ditto ditto	25 — Russia arsh.
29 ditto ditto	28 — ells Sweden

A Hamburg last of grain will render 83 bushels, Winchester measure.

We have subjoined an official account of all the imports into Hamburg, in the year 1802; that is to say, the last year previous to the blockade, when Hamburg was one of the greatest commercial places on the whole of the European continent, though in time of peace, when trade might have been supposed to find its way to other places.

From this table, not only the immense extent of the commerce of that city will be seen; but, as the places from which all the articles come are specified, it is in itself alone, on that account, a most valuable document. In respect to purchasing, it may almost be termed a commercial dictionary, as it shews, not only from whence articles come, but, where there are more than one place which furnish the same object, the most advantageous for purchasing at may be ascertained by the quantities; as for example, in the article of glass, we find much more come from France than from England; and as ready money must be paid there, and credit is given in England, it is well known,

that this circumstance will counterbalance a considerable advantage both in point of price and quality, therefore, France must be the best to purchase in.

The same may be said about linen; a very small quantity of which, probably for some private or particular purpose, only came from this country, but nearly all the rest (and the quantity was immense) came from Berlin, Lüneburg, and Magdeburg. It would fill a large volume to make the commentaries and remarks that might arise out of the inspection of this roll, but the mercantile man will do that best for himself, when in the course of his transactions, he has occasion for any particular inquiry.

The same table might have been given for last year, but though it specifies the articles, they did not come directly to Hamburg. During the present blockade, the merchandise is received at Hamburg through Holstein, by way of Tonnungen principally, and from the following places collectively, Brunsbittel, Buxtehude, Frederickstadt, Gluckstadt, Heilingstadt, Husum, Itzehoe, Kiel, by way of Lauenburg, from Lubec; by land also from Lubec, Neufeldt, Rendsburg, and Wilster.

An equal degree of information could therefore not be obtained by giving the list since; besides which circumstance, Hamburg was no longer so great an emporium as in the year 1802.

In 1802, the year of peace, the trade of Hamburg rivalled, and perhaps equalled, that of Amsterdam; so that it is not the war only that banishes commerce from Holland, but the unfortunate connexion it has with France, and its dependence upon that power; for previous to the revolution, there was not the smallest comparison. The total number of ships that arrived at Amsterdam, in 1802, was 2555

At Hamburg	-	-	-	-	2108
At Bremen	-	-	-	-	1164

Specification of Merchandise imported into Hamburg, in 1802.

Apples, 733 casks.

Agricultural implements, 4 chests from London.

Alabaster, 30 chests from Leghorn.

Alizary, 32 bales from Leghorn and Triest.

Aloes, 73 casks 63 chests and 40 parcels from Leghorn and the Cape of Good Hope.

- Alum, 471 casks 25 bags and 6 baskets from Carlsrona, Hull, Leghorn, Lubec, Newcastle, Teneriff and Uddewalla.
- Amaril, 12 casks from Rotterdam and Sardam.
- Amber, 1 cask from Leghorn.
- Aniseed, 98 casks 19 bales 50 bags and 7 bales from Berlin, Bourdeaux, Leghorn, London, Magdeburg, Pillau and Rotterdam.
- Anchovies, 637 casks, 209 chests and 84 ankers from Amsterdam, Antwerp, Bergen, Bourdeaux, Bristol, Cette, Dantzic, Leghorn, Genoa, Malaga, Marseilles, Rotterdam, and Sardam.
- Antimony, 121 casks from Berlin and Trieste.
- Apothecary goods, 4 cases and 2 chests from Bremen and London.
- Aquavitæ, 5 parcels from Leghorn.
- Arquebusade, 13 chests from Luneburg.
- Arrack, 15 casks 4 pipes and 1 chest from Bremin, Isle of France, London and New York.
- Arsenic, 194 casks from Berlin, Bremen, Luneburg, Magdeburg and Stettin.
- Ashes, 294 casks from Lubec and Triest.
- Assafoetida, 12 chests from London.
- Axes, 3 casks from Drontheim.
- Amber, 7 casks from Stettin and Dantzic.
- Asses, 1 from Hull.
- Almonds, 499 casks 680 bales 234 serons 30 chests and 13 packs from Alicant, Bourdeaux, Cette, Genoa, Lisbon, Leghorn, London, Malaga, Messina and Triest.
- Annatto, 259 casks, from Bourdeaux, Embden, Havre de Grace and London.
- Aqua-fortis, 1 chest from Stockholm.
- Balsam, 5 casks and 20 chests from Cadiz, Lisbon and London.
- Ballast, 3 ship loads from Dunkirk, London, and Ostend.
- Barilla, 100 bales from Alicant.
- Batatas, 7 casks and 2 chests from Cadiz, Malaga and Philadelphia.
- Brooms, 4 bales from Rotterdam.
- Beds, 3 chests and 3 beds from Dunkirk, Havre de Grace, New York and Stralsund.
- Bed-covers, 2 packs from Leghorn and London.
- Bedsteads, 1 from Dunkirk.
- Bed-clothes, 6 packs from Bayonne, Bourdeaux and Dunkirk.
- Beads, 12 casks, 18 bales and 1 chest from Amsterdam, Leghorn and Triest.

Beer, 538 casks, 30 pipes, and 3 chests, from Amsterdam, Bremen, Bristol, Dantzic, Havannah, Hull, Leith, London, Lubec, Newcastle, Pillau, Rotterdam and Yarmouth.

Beer, ale, 189 casks and 1 chest from Hull, Leith and London.
porter, 1106 casks 210 hogsheads 45 hampers and
72 bottles from Colchester, Dublin, Hull, Leith,
and London.

Biscuit, 1 cask from Havre de Grace.

Bellows, 6 from Hull.

Blues, 4398 casks from Amsterdam, Luneburg, and Yarmouth.

Beans, 797 bags from sundry German places.

Bole, 4 casks from Bremen.

Borax, 44 chests 2 casks and 8 packs from Amsterdam, Leghorn and London.

Bark, 421 casks and 1 parcel from Amsterdam, London, New York and Philadelphia.

Bristles, 114 casks and 1 chest from Archangel, Embden and Lubec.

Bottles, 52,096 bottles from Leith, Newcastle and Yarmouth.

Brandy, 470 pieces 198 casks 1095 pipes 16 chests 33 hogsheads and 14 ankers from Alicante, Amsterdam, Bayonne, Dantzic, Guernsey, Jersey, Leghorn, Marseilles, Plymouth, Rouen and Yarmouth.

Brown-red, 42 casks from Amsterdam, Luneburg, and Stettin.

Brown-stone, 202 casks from ditto.

Bronze, 4 chests and 1 bale, from Havre de Grace and Rouen.

Books, 238 chests 11 packs 18 bales 1 cask 4 parcels and 2 coffers from Amsterdam, Antwerp, Bayonne, Bourdeaux, Cadiz, Gothenburg, Leith, Leghorn, London, Luneburg, Malaga, Marseilles, New York, Philadelphia, Rouen, Stockholm, Stettin and Triest.

Book-binders' ware, 32 chests from London.

Brushes, 33 casks from Lubec.

Butter, 2934 casks.

Bark, Peruvian, 57 chests 18 casks and 3 bales from Bayonne, Cadiz, London and New York.

Beads, glass, 8 chests from Cefalonia and Triest.

Beef, cured, 13 chests and 2 casks from Archangel and Marseilles.

Barley, 15 cargoes 80 lasts and 128 bags from Dantzic, Memel, Stralsund and Tonningen.

Buttons, 1 chest from Boston.

Baskets, 13 bales from Rotterdam.

- Bay berries, 27 casks and 102 bags from Bremen, Oporto and Triest.
- Bay berry leaves, 999 bags, 39 bales and 1 cask from Bourdeaux, Oporto, Sardam and Triest.
- Brass, 466 pieces and 4 casks from Bremen, Lubec and Luneburg.
- Brass wire, 800 rings, 11 chests and 1 cask from Leghorn, Lubec and Luneburg.
- Black-lead, 900 casks from Bremen, Malaga and Rotterdam.
- Buckles, 1 chest from Liverpool.
- Brimstone, 281 casks, 1640 chests, 28 cases from Bourdeaux, Cette, Leghorn, Malaga, Marseilles, and Triest.
- Brimstone flour, 27 casks from Marseilles.
- Bacon, 967 flitches and 2 casks from Embden, Lubec, Oldenburg and Rincopen.
- Boot-legs, 1 chest from Antwerp.
- Birds, foreign, 2 parrots from Lisbon.
- Berries, juniper, 862 bags from Amsterdam, Bremen, Leghorn, Luneburg, Oporto and Triest.
- Cambrick, 2 bales from Dunkirk and Havre de Grace.
- Cotton, 2179 bags, 1489 packs, 1815 bales and 1310 serons from Aalburg, Baltimore, Bombay, Bremen, Cadiz, Charlestown, Glasgow, Gosport, Havannah, Hull, Isle of France, London, &c.
- Cotton yarn, 1467 packs and 3 chests from Bristol, Glasgow, Hull, Liverpool, London and Yarmouth.
- Cotton stuffs, 1144 chests, 128 packs and 1 coffer from Boston, Glasgow, Hull, Leith, London and Luneburg.
- Cabinet ware, 5 chests from London.
- Cocoa, 5548 bags, 385 casks, 49 serons, 197 bales and 49 packs from Amsterdam, Bourdeaux, Cadiz, Dover, Embden, Lisbon, Gosport, Liverpool, London, Oporto, Porto Vedna and Muros and St. Thomas.
- Coffee, 9520 hogsheads, 29289 casks, 6021 bales, 254 packs, 107 mats, 4 chests, 246 bocauds, 92 serons and 5065 pounds altogether about 24 millions of pounds from Amsterdam, Baltimore, Bombay, Boston, Bourdeaux, Bristol, Cadiz, Cape of Good Hope, Charlestown, Copenhagen, Dublin, Gosport, Grangemouth, Hull, Isle of France, Leith, Lisbon, Liverpool, London, Marseilles, Nantz, New, York, Plymouth, Port Republican, St. Domingo, St. Thomas, Yarmouth, &c.
- Calicoes, 602 packs and 22 chests from Leith and London.
- Camel-hair, 2 bales from Amsterdam and Leghorn.

- Camphor, 19 chests, 27 casks and 2 tubs from the Isle of France, London and Rotterdam.
- Candy, sugar, 15 chests from Bremen.
- Cinnamon, 161 packs and 96 chests from Amsterdam, Lisbon, London and Stockholm.
- Cantharides or Spanish flies, 1 chest from Cette.
- Capers, 59 casks and 47 chests from Bordeaux, Cette, Genoa, Leghorn, London and Marseilles.
- Cardamons, 13 chests and 3 packs from Isle of France and London.
- Cassia, 380 chests, 22 casks and 273 packs from Boston, Isle of France, London and Philadelphia.
- Chesnuts, 700 fanegas, 8 bags and 7 chests from Bayonne, Bilboa, Bourdeaux and Lisbon.
- Cottons, 384 chests, 159 bales and 135 packs from Amsterdam, Boston, Glasgow, Hull, Isle of France, Leith, London, &c.
- Cotton goods, 75 chests and 18 packs from Glasgow and London.
- Champignons, 1 bale from Bordeaux.
- Chocolate, 221 chests, 22 boxes and 1 cask from Amsterdam, Bourdeaux, Bayonne, Genoa, Lisbon, Leghorn, London, Malaga and Rotterdam.
- Ciceory, 514 casks from Amsterdam, Bremen, Dockum, Embden, Lüneburg, Magdeburg and Sardam.
- Cobalt, 1 chest from Stockholm.
- Cochineal, 279 casks, 225 serons, 15 chests and 10 packs from Amsterdam, Bayonne, Bourdeaux, Cadiz, London, New York, Philadelphia and St. Thomas.
- Comfits, 98 chests, and 5 baskets, from Bourdeaux, Cadiz, Cette, Dieppe, Dunkirk, Havannah, London, and Marseilles.
- Copying machines, 3 from Bristol and London.
- Currants, 2159 bags, and 643 casks, from Algesiras, Cefalonia, Leghorn, London, Triest, and Zante.
- Cream of tartar, 133 casks, from Bourdeaux, Cette, Leghorn, Malaga, Marseilles, Triest, and Zante.
- Curcumei, 2315 bags, and 1 cask, from London and Amsterdam.
- Cider, 7 casks, 1 chest, 1 hamper, and 33 bottles, from Dover, Hayre de Grace, Hull, and Philadelphia.
- Colours, 1289 casks, 7 chests, 4 bales, and 8 baskets, from Amsterdam, Havre de Grace, Hull, Leith, London, Newcastle, Riga, Rouen, and Sardam.

- Casks, empty, 124 from Bergen, London, Plymouth, Rostoc, Seville, and St. Petersburg.
- Carpets, 25 packs 2 chests and 3 bundles from Leith, London, and Malaga.
- Calamine, 125 casks from Amsterdam, Bremen, Bristol, and Hull.
- Cucumbers, 76 casks 1 chest and 6 pots from Amsterdam, Dieppe, Dunkirk, Sardam and St. Petersburg.
- Currants, 6 pots from Cette.
- Careb or John's bread, 2 casks from Triest.
- Cinnabar, 34 casks and 10 chests from Lüneburg and Triest.
- Combs, 1 chest from Lisbon.
- Cheese, 235041 cheeses 1775 chests, 367 casks and 3 hampers, from Amsterdam, Bourdeaux, Drontheim, Embden, Enkhuyzen, Genoa, Hull, Leer, London and Sardam.
- Cheese, fig, 76 chests 4 pieces and 1 cask from Genoa, Leghorn, Malaga, and Triest.
- Cheese, Parmasan, 4 hampers 70 parcels and 1 cheese from Leghorn and Triest.
- Callarets, for travelling, empty, 1600 from Amsterdam.
- Cherries, dried, 3 casks from Magdeburg.
- Clothes, 63 chests 66 trunks 7 bags 4 bundles and 13 packs from Bourdeaux, Cadiz, Dieppe, Glasgow, Hull, Liverpool, London, New York, Rouen, Stockholm, Triest and Wolgast.
- Cork, 1615 bales 1116 cwt. 8223 pounds and 2 chests from Alicant, Bayonne, Barcelona, Bourdeaux, Cette, Hull, Lisbon, Rotterdam and St. Thomas.
- Corks, 81 bales and 84 bags from Barcelona, Bourdeaux, Cette, Lisbon and Oporto.
- Crabs-eyes, 2 casks from Berlin.
- Chalk, 139 casks from Amsterdam, Bremen, Embden and Sardam.
- Church utensils, 1 bale from Leghorn.
- Cumin, 76 casks 59 bales 56 bags and 13 packs from Alicant, Bergen, Dunkirk, Leghorn, Magdeburg and Triest.
- Copper, 1498 casks 22330 pieces 1067 bars 2 bales and 30 shippounds from Berlin, Bremen, Bristol, Cadiz, Carlsrona, Drontheim, London, Montevideo, Stockholm and St. Petersburg.
- Copper kettles, 442 kettles from Drontheim and Lubec.
- nails, 1 chest from Gothenburg.
- plates, 16 casks and 1 chest from Harfleur.
- pots, 20 pieces from ditto.
- utensils, 1 chest from Havre de Grace.

- Coach-work, 1 bale and 1 trunk from London.
- Candlesticks, 1 chest from Stockholm.
- Candles, 3943 chests and 2170 casks from Archangel, Bergen, London, Lubec, Riga, Stockholm and St. Petersburg.
- Cords, 3 chests from London.
- Cloves, 136 bags 77 chests 23 casks and 5 packs from London.
- China, 153 chests from Amsterdam, Berlin, Dieppe, Havre de Grace, Leghorn, Lüneburg, Norden and Rouen.
- Chairs, arm, 16 pieces from Bourdeaux.
- Chairs, 353 pieces and 9 packs from Amsterdam, Bourdeaux, Embden and Groningen.
- Cordage, 522 packs and 665 parcels from Archangel, Gothenburg, Newcastle and St. Petersburg.
- Carpets, 5 packs from Archangel and Leghorn.
- Cloth, 42 packs 2 bales and 5 chests from Boston, Dover, Leith, Liverpool, London, Newcastle and Rouen.
- Carriages, 4 chaises 49 carriages 1 phaeton 1 curricule and 6 cabriolets from Hull, Leith, London, Newcastle, Rouen, St. Petersburg and Yarmouth.
- Cordial water, 4 chests from Plymouth.
- Dates, 3 casks and 1 chest from Leghorn and Triest.
- Drugs, 954 chests 263 bags 263 packs 500 casks 136 bales 52 colly and 11 serons from Amsterdam, Baltimore, Bourdeaux, Bremen, Cape of Good Hope, Cette, Dantzic, Genoa, Leghorn, Liverpool, London, Rotterdam and Triest.
- Downs, 1 bag from Olufswig.
- Dogs, 47 from London.
- Dutch pinks, 15 casks from Bremen and Rotterdam.
- Elephants' teeth 2349 pieces 3 chests 41 casks and 15 packs from the Cape of Good Hope, Havannah, Hull, Isle of France, Lisbon, Liverpool, London, Rouen and Yarmouth.
- Elephants' earth, 48 casks and 4 parcels from Amsterdam, Bremen, Magdeburg and Triest.
- Earth, pipe, 4 parcels from Amsterdam and Muyden.
- Earth, pot, 22 cargoes 7 parcels and 14 lasts from Amsterdam, Bremen and Rouen.
- Earth, sugar-bakers', 102 casks 84 lasts and 598 muids from Dieppe, Honfleur, Rochelle, Rouen and Port-a-Petre.
- Essence, 31 chests from Bordeaux, Cette, Genoa, Leghorn and Triest.
- East India goods, 586 packs 39 chests and 9 bales from London and Philadelphia.
- Earthen-ware, 815 hogsheads 19 casks 2428 hampers 55

- chests and 1 cargo from Bristol, Hull, Liverpool, London, Lubec, Malaga, Newcastle, St. Petersburg and Sunderland.
 Flowers, 3 chests from Lisbon and Leghorn.
 Flower-roots, 64 cases from Amsterdam.
 Feathers, 79 bags and 44 bales from Bayonne, Dantzic, Embden, Lubec and Stettin.
 Figs, 766 casks 259 baskets 466 chests 204 mats and 6 packs from Cadiz, Jersey, Lisbon, Leghorn, Malaga and Triest.
 Fennel, 41 casks and 19 bags from Lüneburg and Magdeburg.
 Filtering stones, 4 stones from Havre de Grace.
 Fish, unnamed, 6783 fish 373 waag. 191 kniepen 470 casks and 1003 cwt. from Aalborg, Bergen, Bilboa, Drontheim, Embden, Glückstadt, Hull, Lisbon, Lubec and Rotterdam.
 Fishing tackle, 99 casks from Embden.
 Flax, 2709 packs 50 bales and 6 mats from Amsterdam, Archangel, Dantzic, Memel, Pillau and Riga.
 Flag-cloth, 1 pack from Sardam.
 Flannels, 19 bales from Bourdeaux, London and Lüneburg.
 Flasket cases, empty, 1150 from Amsterdam.
 Fountains, 1 from Rouen.
 Frize, 4 bales from Lüneburg.
 Fruit, 33706 chests, 41 casks and 2000 pieces consisting of lemons, oranges, &c. from Bourdeaux, Cadiz, Galipoli, Genoa, Lisbon, Leghorn, London, Malaga, &c.
 Fruit, dried, 2 bales 1 cask and 3 chests from Havre de Grace and Nantz.
 Fruit, preserved in brandy or vinegar, 57 chests from Cette.
 Flour, 1158 casks 608 sacks and 200 pounds from Archangel, Baltimore, London, Lubec, New-York and Philadelphia.
 Furniture, 4 parcels 35 chests 1 parcel 2 bales 1 trunk 6 tables 6 bureaus looking-glass and 1 chest from Amsterdam, Bremen, Dieppe, Hull, London, Rouen, Sardam, Stettin, Stockholm, St. Petersburg and St. Thomas.
 Fashionable goods, 47 chests from Antwerp, Havre de Grace and London.
 Fustain, 10 chests from Lüneburg.
 Furs, 64 casks 37 packs 7 bales and 2 chests from Amsterdam, Baltimore, Drontheim, London, New York and Stockholm.
 Flints, 155 hogsheads from Nantz.
 Gall apples, 14 bags 23 bales and 2 casks from Isle of France, Malaga and St. Petersburg.
 Geneva, 215 pipes 72 pieces 52 casks and 1347 ankers from Amsterdam, Dantzic, Rotterdam and Sardam.

- Glass, 210 chests 11 casks and 457 baskets from Bremen, Dieppe, Liverpool, London, Lüneburg, Newcastle, Rouen and Stettin.
- Glass bells, 1 chest from Havre de Grace.
- Glass ware, 15 casks and 11 chests from Havre de Grace, London, Newcastle and Triest.
- Glasses, 11 chests 24 casks and 57 baskets from Newcastle and Philadelphia.
- Grenada apples, 4 chests 3 casks 8 baskets and 100 pieces from Malaga.
- Granite pillars, 1 from Leghorn.
- Grain, dressed, 1007 bags, 32 casks and 403 bales from Amsterdam, Edam, Flensburg, Lüneburg, Sardam and Tonnin-gen.
- Grits, 100 bags from Dantzic and Lubec.
- Gums, 162 casks 161 chests 52 serons 4 bales 11 bags and 64000 pounds from Amsterdam, Bourdeaux, Isle of France, Lisbon, Leghorn, London, St. Thomas and Teneriff.
- Gloves, 6525 pair and 1 trunk from Bourdeaux and Olufswig.
- Ginger, 485 bags 48 packs 53 bales and 23 casks from Liverpool and London.
- Gunpowder, 72 casks from Honfleur, Lubec and Lüneburg.
- Gingles, 253 bales from Leghorn, Malaga and Oporto.
- Grapes, 1576 pots from Malaga.
- Hair, 47 bales and 19 bags from Amsterdam and Lüneburg.
- Hair, horse, 66 packs and 4 bags from Archangel and Dantzic.
- Hair-cloth, 2 casks from London.
- Hair-covers, 4 packs from Archangel.
- Hemp, 6502 bundles from Archangel, Lubec, Memel and St. Petersburg.
- Hazle-nuts, 9 casks and 20 bags from Genoa and Malaga.
- Hides, 226472 hides 530 packs and 9 bundles from Aalborg, Arhuys, Buenos Ayres, Cadiz, Cape of Good Hope, Drontheim, London, New York, Porto Cabello, Senegal and St. Thomas.
- Herrings, 7654 casks and 1387 lasts from Amsterdam, Archangel, Drontheim, Christiansund, Flensburg, Gothenburg, Grangemouth, Hittland, Rotterdam and Vlardingem.
- Honey, 78 hogsheads and 12 casks from Archangel, Leer, Lüneburg, Nantz and Oldenburg.
- Hops, 555 pockets and 228 bags from Amsterdam, Dublin, Hull, Leith, London, Lubec and Salem.
- Hop-mills, 1 from London.

- Horns, 12594 pieces 22 casks and 29 wurf from Bergen, Bremen, Buenos Ayres, Charlestown, Stettin and Triest.
- Horns, goat, 27005 pieces from Bergen.
- Horns, stag, 15 casks and 7 packs from Bergen, Berlin and Bremen.
- Horns, ox, 51712 pieces from Cadiz, Cape of Good Hope, Lisbon, London, Malaga, Oporto and Porto Cabello.
- Horn, lanthorn, 1 chest from London.
- Horn-plate, 28130 pieces and 6 casks from Cadiz and Port-a-Port.
- Horn-tips, 176 casks 143855 pieces 179 bags and 1 chest from Bourdeaux, Buenos Ayres, Cadiz, Copenhagen, Hull, Lisbon, Liverpool, London, Oporto, Porto Cabello, Seville, Stettin and Triest.
- Hats, 115 chests 5 casks and 48 hats from Antwerp, Embden, Hull, Leith, London and Rouen.
- Hats, straw, 11 chests and 12 hats from Leghorn and London.
- Herbs, 2 casks from Magdeburg.
- Horses, 259 from Bridlington, Hull and London.
- Horse covers, 1 pack from St. Petersburg.
- Hair-powder, 9 casks and 3 trunks from Dover and Hull.
- Hams, 384 hams 8 casks and 2 hampers from Bayonne, Bourdeaux, Bremen, Embden, Malaga and Oldenburg.
- Hogs, 1 from Leghorn.
- Handkerchiefs, pocket 7 chests 1 pack and 148 pieces from Bayonne, Bourdeaux, Glasgow and Leith.
- Jacks, roasting, 2 from Hull.
- Iron, 182955 bars 467 kniepen 2433 bundles 8 casks 750 shippounds 56 lispounds 22 chests and 3 parcels from Abo, Amsterdam, Archangel, Bremen, Carlsrona, Copenhagen, Gefle, Gottenburg, Helsinfors, Lauenburg, Leghorn, Lubec, Luneburg, Rotterdam, Stockholm, St. Petersburg, Stralsund, Uddewalla and Warburg.
- Iron anvils, 7 from Hull and Amsterdam.
- Ditto anchors, 18 from Lauenburg, Lubec and Stockholm.
- Ditto hoops, 80 bundles from Amsterdam, Teneriff and Yarmouth.
- Ditto bedsteads, 8 chests from Baltimore.
- Ditto chimney-grates, 2 grates from London.
- Ditto wire, 4 casks, from Teneriff.
- Ditto chests, 9 chests.
- Ditto cannon, 84 pieces from Elsinour and Stockholm.
- Ditto kettles, 8146 pieces from Havre de Grace and Rouen.
- Ditto nails, 67 casks 95 chests and 11 bags from Amsterdam,

Bremen, Calmar, Carlsrona, Gothenburg, Lubec and Stockholm.

Iron stoves, 571 pieces 5 parcels 4 chests and 1 cask from Amsterdam, Bremen, London, Stockholm and Havre de Grace.

Ditto pans, 1 cask from London.

Ditto plates, 373 chests 24 pieces and 3 packs from Amsterdam, Bremen, Drontheim, Gothenburg, Stockholm and Udewalla.

Ditto spades, 112 pieces from Drontheim and Honfleur.

Ditto pots, 11542 pieces from Dieppe, Havre de Grace, Rouen and Yarmouth.

Iron ware, 1846 casks 1122 chests and 107 parcels from Amsterdam, Bremen, Hull, Leith, London, Newcastle and Sardinia.

India rubber, 29 bags from Lisbon.

Isinglass, 4 chests and 2 bags from St. Petersburg.

Jalop, 233 bales 18 bags 2 chests and 17 packs from Bayonne, Bourdeaux, Cadiz, Cette, Charlestown, London and Philadelphia.

Indigo, 4785 chests 1753 serons and 230 casks from Bayonne, Bourdeaux, Cadiz, Charlestown, Havannah, Isle of France, Liverpool, Philadelphia, London, &c.

Insects, 1 chest from Lisbon.

Instruments unnamed, 6 chests and 4 packs from Dieppe, Havre de Grace and London.

Instruments, mathematical, 16 chests from London.

Instruments, musical, 21 chests 10 harps and 9 forte-piano from Dieppe, Leith, Leghorn and London.

Instruments, optical, 3 chests from London.

Ipecacuana, 11 casks and 1 chest from Cadiz, Cette, Lisbon, London and Oporto.

Jufts, 677 packs from Amsterdam, Archangel, Leer and Lubec.

Jugs, 10 casks from Bremen.

Incense, 22 chests 3 casks and 2 bags from Leghorn.

Kerseymeres, 84 chests 22 packs and 13 pieces from Aalborg, and London.

Kitchen utensils, 1 bale from Bourdeaux.

Knives, 4 casks from Teneriff.

Lead, 11912 pieces 42 rolls 4 casks and 5 hampers from Hull, Liverpool, Lubec, Luneburg, London and Magdeburg.

Lead ore, 131 casks from Malaga.

Lead, white, 416 casks from Amsterdam, Edam, Hull, Liverpool, London, Newcastle, Norden, Rotterdam and Sardinia.

Lemon-juice, 8 pipes 17 barrels 76 casks and 331 baths from Cadiz, Leghorn and Messina.

Lime, 4 lasts 1 cargo and 22 casks from Christiana, Lubec and Luneburg.

Lavender-flowers, 1 bale from Bourdeaux.

Lamps, 7 chests from Havre de Grace and Rouen.

Lamp-black, 80 casks from Newcastle.

Land-charts, see maps.

Leather, 319 packs 31 chests 1030 pieces and 5 bales from Amsterdam, Bremen, Hull, Leer, London, Lubec, Ostend and Sardam.

Leather, soal, 188 pounds and 200 pieces from Bremen and Leer.

Linens, 3405 chests 22165 pieces 3528 packs 174 bales 115 bags and 68 casks from Amsterdam, Archangel, Berlin, Bremen, Dantzic, Gothenburg, London, Luneburg, Riga, Stettin, Stockholm and Yarmouth.

Linen painted, 1 bale from Leghorn.

Linen made up, 5 trunks and 1 bale from Havre de Grace and Port-a-Port.

Lignum-quassia, 1 party from Greenock.

Lignum-vitæ, 3450 pieces from Charlestown, Glasgow, Liverpool, London, New York and Philadelphia.

Lemon peel, 7 bales 22 casks from Bremen, London and Malaga.

Lemons salted, 77 casks 19 baths and 16 bales from Cadiz, Malaga and Messina.

Lentils, 30 bags from Dantzic and Lüneburg.

Liqueurs, 18 chests from Amsterdam, Bayonne, Bourdeaux, Cette, Leghorn, Malaga and New York.

Lime stone, 20 lasts and 2 cargoes from Gluckstadt and Rouen.

Liquorice juice, 5 chests from Bayonne.

Linen, 4 chests 5 trunks and 2 bales from Cadiz, Cette, Havre de Grace, Leghorn and Rouen.

Monkies, 1 from Lisbon.

Money in silver and gold, *viz.*

From Cadiz, 50 bags of pesos and 315950 piasters.

Charlestown, 1 chest of gold.

Cuxhaven, 14 casks of silver.

Havannah, 28500 pieces of piasters 3178 dollars and 22 reales.

Lisbon, 3270 piece piasters and 1 bag pesos.

London, 3 chests of gold 41 bags of pesos 3 casks of silver and 3 chests of silver coin.

- From Oporto, 1200 pieces of piasters.
 St. Thomas, 12808 piasters.
 Matsfoot, 12 bales and 2 pieces from Malaga.
 Millet, 26 bags from Magdeburg.
 Maps, 2 packs from Stockholm.
 Mace-bloom, 21 chests and 5 casks from Bombay and London.
 Mace-nuts, 32 chests and 6 casks from Bombay, Bourdeaux,
 Havannah, London, Montevideo, New York and Triest.
 Macaroni, 108 chests from Leghorn, Naples and Rouen.
 Mattresses, 1 pack from St. Thomas.
 Magnesia, 13 chests from Leith and London.
 Malt, 1107 lasts and 1 cargo from Rostoc, Stralsund and Wol-
 gast.
 Manna, 9 chests from Cette, Leghorn and Triest.
 Manchester goods, 2 chests from London.
 Manille, 3360 pieces from Salem.
 Marble, 38 chests and 1 basket from Antwerp, Copenhagen
 and Leghorn.
 Marble-figures, 17 chests from Leghorn.
 flags, 10871 pieces.
 table leaves, 11 chests.
 tables, 4 pieces.
 work, 119 chests.
 Machines, 1 chest and 3 pieces from London and Rouen.
 Masks, 1 chest from Leghorn.
 Mastix, 1 cask from Triest.
 Mats, 417108 pieces from Archangel, Dantzic, Lauenburg,
 London, Lubec, Memel, Pillau, Riga, Stettin and St. Peters-
 burgh.
 Medicines, 5 chests from Gothenburg, Havre de Grace and
 London.
 Molasses, 750 casks and 266 puncheons from Liverpool and
 London.
 Melons, 200 pieces 48 chests and 251 baskets from Malaga.
 Minerals, 3 chests and 4 casks from London.
 Myrtle, 1 chest from Cette.
 Muslin, 1157 chests 50 packs and 3 trunks from Boston, Glas-
 gow, Hull, Leith, London and Philadelphia.
 Mills, 4 pieces from London.
 Music, 9 chests from Cephalonia, Havre de Grace, Leghorn,
 Rouen and Triest.
 Mother of pearl, 2 chests from London.
 Madder, 48 casks from Berlin.
 Madder, 1223 casks from Amsterdam, Bremen and Rotterdam.

- Mustard, 16 chests and 45 casks from Bourdeaux, Dieppe, Hull, London and Magdeburg.
- Mill-stones, 35 pieces and 1 party from Amsterdam and Myden.
- Nankins, 2122 bales and 50 bundles from Boston, Canton in China, Gothenburg, London, New York, Philadelphia and Salem.
- Natural curiosities, 10 chests and 2 trunks from Dieppe and Lisbon.
- Oysters, 3690 bushels and 4 casks from Bergen, Brightlingsea, Faversham, Wells and Yarmouth.
- Oats, 1431 lasts 61 cargoes 10 parcels 726 casks and 5 bags from Embden, Konigsburg, Liebau, Memel, Riga, Rostoc, Stralsund, &c.
- Ochre, 285 hogsheads and 49 casks from Amsterdam, London, Nantz and Rotterdam.
- Ox-tongues dried, 2 chests and 9 packs from Archangel.
- Oil, different kinds, 3089 pipes 2596 casks 1266 chests 246 baths 475 pots and 112 hogsheads from Bourdeaux, Cete, Gallipoli, Genoa, Jersey, Lisbon, Leghorn, London, Messina, Naples, Rouen, Seville, Triest, Yarmouth and Zante.
- Oil, cedar, 26 chests and 7 casks from Genoa.
- Oil, hemp-seed, 1044 casks from Lubec and St. Petersburg.
- Oil, linseed, 51 casks from Amsterdam and Stettin.
- Oil, olive, 112 casks and 1 chest from Cete, Genoa, Havre de Grace, Lisbon, Leghorn and Messina.
- Oil, vitriol, 423 bottles and 25 hampers from Leith, London and Newcastle.
- Oil, turpentine, 467 hogsheads and 19 casks from Bayonne and Bourdeaux.
- Oil cakes, 1 cargo 140043 pieces from Frederickstadt, Rotterdam, Tonningen and Worden.
- Olives, 678 casks 13 chests 65 parcels and 2 pots from Bourdeaux, Cadiz, Leghorn, Malaga, Marseilles and Seville.
- Opiate, 1 cask from Triest.
- Opium, 4 chests and 1 cask from Bombay, Cete and Triest.
- Oranges dried, 78 chests 172 casks 30 bales and 111 bags from Genoa, Lisbon, Leghorn, Malaga and Triest.
- Orange trees, 4 from Malaga.
- Orange bloom, 7 chests from Genoa.
- Orange peel, 1034 bales 168 bags 4 packs and 15 serons from Bremen, Cadiz, Leghorn, Malaga, Seville and Triest.
- Orchilla, 127 casks and 11 bags from Bristol and London.
- Oil, train, 6632 barrels 383 casks 1254 quards, 32 ohm. and 1 anker from Archangel, Bergen, Boston, Christiansund, Hull, London, Lubec, Newcastle and St. Petersburg.

- Pumice stone, 175 casks from Dantzic, Leghorn, New York and Triest.
- Pears, 46 casks from Dieppe, Havre de Grace and Rouen.
- Pease, 3832 sacks 112 lasts 74 casks and 1 cargo from Amsterdam, Cadiz, Dantzic, Lubec, Malaga, Rostoc and Sardam.
- Paintings and copperplates, 19 chests and 3 bales from Dieppe, Havre de Grace, Lisbon, Leghorn, London and St. Petersburg.
- Peaster, 10 casks from Bremen.
- Palm twigs, 2 bales and 2 packs from Genoa.
- Paper, 16091 packs 115 chests 18831 quires and 1433 bales from Amsterdam, Bourdeaux, Bremen, Cadiz, Hull, London, Luneburg, Rotterdam and Sardam.
- Perfumery, 89 chests from Bourdeaux, Cette, Havre de Grace, London and Rouen.
- Pitch, 2926 barrels from Carlsrona, Lauenburg, Lubec, Rendsburg, Uddewalla and Westerwick.
- Pearls, 1 chest from Bremen.
- Pepper, 5253 bags 418 packs 389 bales and 31 casks from Amsterdam, Bergen, Isle of France, London, New York and St. Thomas.
- Pepper dust, 204 bags and 8 packs from Bremen and London.
- Pipes, 10251 baskets 643 chests and 54 barrels from Amsterdam, Berlin, Bristol, Rotterdam, Sardam and Torgau.
- Pipe heads, 26 chests from Lüneburg.
- Peaches, 37 chests from Malaga.
- Peach kernels, 1 cask from Triest.
- Plants, 28 chests 1 basket and 1 pack from Bourdeaux, Genoa and London.
- Plums, French, 16679 chests and 3338 barrels from Bourdeaux, Dunkirk and Marseilles.
- Ploughs, 5 from Leith and London.
- Pimento, 1496 bags 201 casks and 13 packs from Leith, Liverpool, London and Philadelphia.
- Pistols, 1 pair from Lisbon.
- Pomatum, 4 chests from Havre de Grace.
- Pot-ashes, 1792 casks from Boston, Carlsrona, Dantzic, Lauenburg, Leghorn, Lubec, Lüneburg, Malaga, New York, St. Petersburg and Triest.
- Provisions, 62 chests 4 casks and 3 baskets from Amsterdam, Archangel, Bourdeaux, Cette, Leghorn, Marseilles and New York.
- Pumps, 3 pieces and 1 chest from Malaga and Rouen.

- Pictures, 12 chests from Antwerp and Stralsund.
- Pots, 36 casks and 6 hampers from Hull.
- Quills, 70 casks 1 bag 2 packs and 5 chests from Aalborg, Archangel, London, Lubec and Norden.
- Quicksilver, 7 chests and 1 cask from Luneburg and Triest.
- Queer-citron, 343 casks and 7 bales.
- Ribands, 2 chests from Havre de Grace and Sardam.
- Rushes, 1 mat from Cadiz.
- Resin, 318 broden, and 7 casks from Amsterdam, Bayonne, Bremen, and Stockholm.
- Rags, 483 bags, 2 casks 3 bundles 21 packs and 6330 pounds from Aarhuys, Bergen, Leghorn, Lubec, Randers, Rostoc and Varel.
- Ravenduck, 2 packs from St. Petersburg.
- Rice, 12,912 barrels 913 half barrels 19,039 bags and 180 packs from Baltimore, Boston, Bourdeaux, Bremen, Charles-town, Hull, Leith, Liverpool, London, New York, Savannah and Triest.
- Rhubarb, 282 chests and 2 casks from Isle of France, London, Lubec, Philadelphia and Triest.
- Rye, 34,899 chetwerts 2811 lasts 18 cargoes 24 bags 1242 casks and 176 bushels, from Archangel, Dantzic, Elbing, Flensburg, Memel, Pillau, Riga, Rostoc, Stralsund, Wismar and Wolgast.
- Raisins, 38,982 casks 1972 chests 352 baskets 141 pots 100 packs 10 mats and four boxes from Amsterdam, Bourdeaux, Cadiz, Lisbon, Leghorn, Malaga, Sardam and Triest.
- Raisin-stalks, 1 cargo and 13 bales from Amsterdam, Bremen and Malaga.
- Rum, 2991 casks 399 hogsheads and 2236 puncheons from Bristol, Dublin, Glasgow, Greenock, Leith, Liverpool, London, New York, Portsmouth, &c.
- Roots, 9 bales and 50 casks from Bourdeaux, Bremen, and Magdeburg.
- Statuary in alabaster 13 chests.
- Starch, 378 casks from Amsterdam, Berlin, London and Lubec.
- Shovels, (ballast), 48 shovels from London.
- Statuary, 1 chest from Havre de Grace.
- Skins, unnamed, 287 packs 223 casks 14 chests 277 bundles 212 bales and 1163 skins from Amsterdam, Bergen, Copenhagen, Drontheim, Dublin, London, New York, and St. Jago.
- Skins, bear, 4 bales and 6 skins from Baltimore, Bergen and Stockholm.

- Skins, goat, 383 packs and 38 bundles from Bergen and Drontheim.
- Skins, rabbit, 1 cask from London.
- Skins, fox, 2130 pieces and 1 cask from Aalburg, Jersey, and Olufswig.
- Skins, hare, 4 casks from Archangel and St. Petersburg.
- Skins, stag, 1 bundle from Drontheim.
- Skins, calf, 76 packs 127 bundles and 224 skins from Aalburg, Arhuys and Bergen.
- Skins, cat, 1 pack from Archangel.
- Skins, lamb, 336 bales 152 packs and 1 cask from Aalburg, Bayonne, Bourdeaux and Leghorn.
- Skins, otter, 31 packs from Bergen, Buenos Ayres and Montevideo.
- Skins, deer, 342 packs and 33 casks from Charlestown and London.
- Skins, seal, 2368 skins 3 casks and 139 packs from Amsterdam, Archangel, Bergen and Greenland.
- Skins, sheep, 2 packs from Cape of Good Hope.
- Small arms, 10 chests from Antwerp.
- Shot, 131 casks from Hull and Newcastle.
- Soot, 60 casks from Archangel and Magdeburg.
- Salmon, 8 casks 184 baskets 12 pieces and 2 chests from Amsterdam, Archangel, Bergen, Drontheim, Rotterdam, and Sardam.
- Sealing-wax, 10 chests and 1 cask from Triest.
- Serge, 1 bale from Luneburg.
- Seed, 735 bags 144 casks 561 bales and 25 chests from Bourdeaux, Edam, Leghorn, Luneburg, Magdeburg, London, New York and Rotterdam.
- Seed, clover, 30 casks 533 bales and 26 bags from Amsterdam, Antwerp, Dieppe, London, Luneburg, Rotterdam and Rouen.
- Seed, grass, 39 packs and 16 bags from Leith and London.
- Seed, linseed, 3226 barrels from Lauenburg, Lubec and Luneburg.
- Seed, poppy, 6 casks from Magdeburg.
- cole-seed, 400 barrels from Neuensiel.
- truffle-seed, 129 bales from Havre de Grace and London.
- sacks, empty, 11,667 sacks 5 bundles 19 packs and 1 party from Archangel, Dantzic, Elbing, Hull, Leith, London, Pillau, Rostoc, Stettin and St. Petersburg.
- Sacharum saturni, 47 casks and 51 chests from Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Sardam and Triest.

- Safflower, 89 bales from Leghorn, London and Malaga.
- Saffron, 23 bags 28 chests and 9 casks, from Alicant, Cadiz, Malaga, Nantz, &c.
- Sago, 22 bales 13 chests 187 casks 548 bags and 27 baskets from Lisbon, London and Oporto.
- Salamoniack, 24 casks and 4 baskets from Cette, Leith, Leghorn, London, Newcastle and Rotterdam.
- Saltpetre, 2787 bags and 131 casks from Bremen, Kaski and London.
- Salt, 1316 moyens 126 hogsheads 20 lasts 215 tons 1 cargo and 86 casks from Cadiz, Embden, Lisbon, Liverpool, Luneburg, Senegal, St. Jago and St. Ubes.
- Sardels, 6 casks 16 ankers and 1 basket from Genoa, Leghorn, Nantz and Pillau.
- Sarsaparilla, 16 serons 72 bales 97 packs and 6 casks from Bayonne, Cadiz, Charlestown, Havannah, Lisbon, Portocabello, and Oporto.
- Saddles, 25 pieces from Hull.
- Saddlery, 26 chests and 9 casks from Bristol, Hull, Leith, and London.
- Sheep, 1125 from Bilboa
- Sea-wort, 16 casks from Luneburg.
- Shellac, 20 chests from London.
- Shumac, 1074 bags 190 bales and 41 casks from Leghorn, Lubec, Malaga and Triest.
- Smalt, 11 casks from Archangel.
- Sledges, 2 sledges from Stockholm.
- Shoes, 4 chests from Teneriff.
- Shoe-soals, 1 cask and 160 dozen from London.
- Sponges, 2 bales from Triest.
- Swans-wings, 1 cask from Archangel.
- Sail-yarn, 1 cask from Antwerp.
- Sail-cloth, 2468 packs 344 rolls 9 chests and 215 pieces from Amsterdam, Archangel, Carlsrona, London, Lubec, Riga, Rotterdam and St. Petersburg.
- Silk, 478 bales 15 chests and 5 packs from Alicant, Genoa, Hull, Isle of France, Leghorn, London and Luneburg.
- Silk-stuffs, 2 packs and 1 chest from London.
- Soap, 1415 chests 75 packs and 27 blocks from Archangel, Bayonne, Dover, Greenock, Leghorn, London, Malaga, Marseilles, Naples, Stockholm, St. Petersburg and Triest.
- Sea-charts, 1 pack from Stockholm.
- Senna, 28 bales and 5 casks from Cette, Leghorn, Malaga and Triest.

Scythes, 6 casks 77 bundles and 2196 pieces from Drontheim, Luneburg and Magdeburg.

Serge, 6 packs from London.

Syrup, 490 casks 85 pipes and 1 chest from Amsterdam, Bourdeaux, Cette, Greenock and London.

Silver-plates, 5 chests from London.

Spice, 15 casks 29 chests and 11 packs from Amsterdam and London.

Spirits of wine, 6 pipes from Cette.

Steel, 3153 casks, 131 chests, 202 parcels, 227 pieces and 37 bundles from Amsterdam, Bremen, Copenhagen, Drontheim, Lauenburg, Stockholm and Uddewalla.

Stones, 2 partys 1 cargo 66 pieces and 6 lasts from Bremen, Calmar and Madeira.

Stone-gravel, 7 tons from London.

Stone, free, 128 pieces from Bremen.

Stones, grind, 2 pieces and 104 chaldrons from Newcastle.

Sea-coal, 7166 $\frac{1}{2}$ chaldrons, 3430 lasts 203 tons and 4 cwt. from Hull, Kirkaldy, Leith, London, Newcastle, Sunderland and Yarmouth.

Sticks, walking, 2 bales and 4000 sticks, from London.

Stuffs, 175 chests 29 packs and 3 bales from Hull, Isle of France, London and Rouen.

Stuffs, cotton, 168 chests and 48 packs from Hull and London.

Storax, 3 chests and 4 casks from Leghorn and Triest.

Stockings, 109 chests 59 packs and 3550 pair from Glasgow, Hull, Leith, London, Nantz, and Olufswig.

Succade, 36 chests from Leghorn, Luneburg, and Triest.

Sweet-meats, 19 chests and 9 packs from Genoa, Leghorn, Malaga and St. Thomas.

Snuff, 12 chests 71 casks and 3 bakets from Cadiz, Charlestown, Havre de Grace and Philadelphia.

Snuff-boxes, 1 chest from Havre de Grace.

Skillets, 142 casks and 2 parcels from Bremen, Magdeburg and Rotterdam.

Sausages, 1 chest and 1 cask from Leghorn and Malaga.

Spelter, 10 casks and 1 chest from London.

Setwall, 1 cask and 1 bale from Leghorn.

Sugar, 24,382 large chests 26,283 small chests 39,701 hogsheads 2604 casks 3026 bags 25 packs 503 mats 15 serons and 4500 pounds together in weight 76 $\frac{1}{2}$ millions of pounds, from Baltimore, Boston, Bourdeaux, Bristol, Canton in China, Glasgow, Greenock, Havannah, Hull, Lisbon, Liver-

pool, London, Newcastle, Plymouth, St. Thomas and Yarmouth.

Sugar-forms, 3 parcels and 500 pieces from Amsterdam and Ronnebeck.

Trees, 172 packs 92 baskets 3 bundles and 2 chests from Amsterdam, Bryonne, Bourdeaux, Dieppe, Hull, Leith, London, Magdeburg, New York and Rouen.

Tin, 721 blocks 16 casks and 193 chests from Hull and London.

Tin-plates, 10 chests from Hull.

Tin-ware, 104 casks from Hull.

Tin, 1444 boxes 55 casks and 103 chests from Carlsham, Hull, London, Lubec, Luneburg, and Magdeburg.

Thistles, 24 baskets from Dieppe and Rouen.

Tinsel, 1 chest from Cadiz.

Tortoise, 6 tortoise, from Triest.

Tortoise-shell, 3 casks 2 chests and $12\frac{1}{2}$ pounds from Cadiz, Charleston, London and St. Thomas.

Tobacco, 1907 casks 1832 hogsheads 4317 packs, 1021 bales 2556 bags 2734 rolls 525 baskets and 542 bundles from Amsterdam, Baltimore, Berlin, Boston, France, Glasgow, Hull, Lisbon, Liverpool, London, New York, Rotterdam, Savannah, Seville, St. Thomas and Triest.

Tobacco-leaves, 1651 hogsheads 21,145 rolls 552 packs and 8 bales, from Baltimore, Liverpool, London, Philadelphia and New York.

Tobacco-segars, 1820 chests from Baltimore, Cadiz, London and America.

Tobacco, Porto Rica, 3937 packs 997 bags 55,455 rolls and 19 casks from Charlestown, Lisbon, New York, and St. Thomas.

Tobacco-stalks, 2918 bales 80 hogsheads 59 casks 424 packs 81 bags and 66,841 pounds from North America, Cadiz, Bourdeaux, Cette, Havre de Grace and Rouen.

Tobacco, canister, 1219 packs and 7214 petacks from La Guayra, Porto Cabello, and St. Thomas.

Tallow, 1807 casks 262 karn. and 372 serons from Archangel, Buenos Ayres, Drontheim, Lauenburg, Lubec and St. Petersburg.

Tamarinds, 8 chests and 1 cask from Bremen and London.

Tapestry, (hangings), 196 bales and 5 chests from Dieppe, Havre de Grace, Lubec and Rouen.

Tapestry-goods, 9 parcels from London.

Turpentine, 70 hogsheads and 60 casks from Bourdeaux, Magdeburg and Triest.

- Tea, 9370 chests and 1 box from Boston, Bourdeaux, Canton, Copenhagen, Lisbon, London, New York, Philadelphia, St. Petersburg and Stockholm.
- Turmeric, see Curcumei.
- Tar, 14,499 barrels from Archangel, Bremen, Carlsrona, Newcastle and Stockholm.
- Tapioca, 10 casks from Cadiz.
- Truffles, 1 chest from Leghorn.
- Tares, 1 cask from London.
- Tooth-picks, 2 chests from Lisbon.
- Thread, 24 chests 12 bales 37 casks and 13 packs from Berlin, Embden, Leith, Luneburg, Norden and Sardam.
- Vinegar, 200 casks 131 hogsheads 13 chests and 8 ankers from Amsterdam, Bourdeaux, Bremen, Cadiz, Dieppe, Guernsey, London, Malaga, Plymouth, Sardam and Yarmouth.
- Varnish, 16 casks from London.
- Vermicelli, 55 chests from Leghorn and Magdeburg.
- Velvet, 2 bales and 1 chest from Genoa and Havre de Grace.
- Vanilla, 79 chests from Bourdeaux, Cadiz, Genoa, Havannah and Porto Cabello.
- Verdigrease, 103 casks 11 chests and 438 pieces from Bourdeaux, Cette, Marseilles and Rouen.
- Vitriol, 797 casks from Bourdeaux, Hull, Leghorn, London, Luneburg, Magdeburg, Newcastle, Sunderland, and Triest.
- Warming-pans, for beds, 1 from London.
- Wood, unnamed, 8 cargoes 1921 pieces and 4 parcels from Bremen, Dantzic, Drontheim, Embden, Fegegacko, Lubec, Rendsburg, Rotterdam, Sardam and Stettin.
- Wood, balks, 547 pieces.
 hoops, 36 cargoes.
 log wood, 36,436 pieces 243 tons 368 cwt. and 339,200 pounds
 Brasil-wood, 6256 pieces 31 tons and 720 pounds.
 boards, 11,300 boards and 1 cargo.
 fire-wood, 25 fathoms.
 box-wood, 9517 pieces.
 Campeachy-wood, 3028 pieces.
 cedar-wood, 162 pieces.
 deals, 12,028 pieces and 6 cargoes.
 wooden boxes, 80 pieces.
 ebony, 338 pieces.
 dye-wood, 43,494 pieces 30 bales 7500 pounds 80 casks 157 packs and 530 cwt.
 Fernambuck-wood, 14,916 pieces.

Wood, yellow wood, 6855 pieces 53 tons 106 cwt. and 147,204 pounds.

hand spikes, 476 pieces and 2 gross.

Japan-wood, 2 tons 2 casks and 8 bundles.

crooked pieces of timber 37 pieces.

mahogany, 588 blocks 78 planks and 747 pieces.

masts, 1 piece.

Nicaragua-wood, 3028 pieces.

Nut-tree wood, 364 pieces.

Olive-tree wood, 10 pieces.

hogshead-bottoms, 198 schock

sassafras wood, 46 tons and 3 bales

shovels, 220 pieces and 4 bundles.

spars, 467 pieces.

staves, unnamed, 47,740 pieces 374 schock 238 rings 7 parcels and four cargoes.

hogshead-staves 170 schock and 55 pieces from Stettin.

pipe-staves, 1727½ schock and 134 pieces from ditto.

cask-staves, 485 schock from ditto.

cask-bottoms, 162 schock and 18 pieces from ditto.

sweet wood, 183 bales.

Watches and pendulums, 110 chests and 95 pieces from Dieppe, Havre de Grace, London, Newcastle, New York and Stockholm.

Watch-springs, 1 chest from London.

Watch-glasses, 3 chests from Havre de Grace and Rouen.

Wax, 143 casks 29 bales 135 packs and 1 chest from Archangel, Berlin, Lauenburg, Lubec, Memel, Stettin, St. Petersburg and Wolgast.

Wax-cloth, 13 chests and 2 packs from Drontheim and Luneburg.

Woad, 420 casks from Luneburg and Magdeburg.

Weed-ashes, 17 casks from Lauenburg.

Whale-bone, 229 packs 66 chests 4 casks 140 bundles and 45 cwt. from Bergen, Hull, Lisbon, London, Newcastle and Triest.

Wallnuts, 8 casks and 5 bags from Bourdeaux and Genoa.

Water (scented) 25 chests from Bourdeaux, Cette, Dieppe and Havre de Grace.

Weed, dyer's, 15787 boss from Bourdeaux, Cette, Dieppe, Dover, Rouen and Triest.

Wine, 2547 pipes 99 half-pipes 71 quarter-pipes 4989 casks 23,042 hogsheads 3150 both 995 pieces 3333 chests 91 ankers and 800 bottles from Alicant, Amsterdam, Bayonne,

Barcelona, Bourdeaux, Cadiz, Cette, Cape of Good Hope, Lisbon, Leghorn, London, Madeira, Malaga, Marseilles, Teneriff, &c.

Wine-stone, or tartar, 380 casks and 52 chests from Bourdeaux, Cette, Leghorn, London, Marseilles, Messina, Rochelle and Triest.

Wheat, 2405 lasts 4066 sacks 28 cargoes 7 parcels 769 barrels 3668 chetwerts and 300 quarters from Archangel, Dantzic, Elbing, London, Pillau, Rostoc, Stettin, Petersburg, Toningen and Wismar.

Wool, 443 bales 1154 bags and 118 packs from Lisbon, Luneburg, Amsterdam, Randers and Toningen.

Wool, Spanish, 260 bales and 76 bags from Bayonne and Seville.

Wool-cards, 1 chest from Amsterdam.

Woollen-goods, 4871 packs 859 chests 1569 parcels and 48 bales from Copenhagen, Dover, Hull, London and Yarmouth.

Worm-seed, 1 chest from Triest.

Yufts, see jufts.

Yarn, 273 casks 362 bales 17 packs and 2 chests from Amsterdam, Antwerp, Bergen, Luneburg and Sardam.

Yellow berries, 167 bags 36 bales and 3 casks from Berlin, Bourdeaux, Leghorn, Rotterdam and Triest.

CHAPTER III.

Of the River Weser, and other Rivers falling into it. The Manner in which the Trade of Bremen is carried on during the present Blockade, by Means of the River Jahde. Of Bremen. Its Localities. Its Trade. Transit Duties, &c. Money, Weights, and Measures.

THE Fulda, which takes its rise near the abbey of Fulda, and the Werre, which runs through Wietzenhausen, and has its source considerably south of that place; both join at Munden, where the Weser takes its name.

The Aller, which runs through Zell, (where it begins to be navigable), receives at Hudemulen, the Leine, which runs through the city of Hanover, and below Verden falls into the Weser; this last river passing through Bremen, in its course receives the Hunte, which has its source at a lake south of Diepholtz and running through Oldenburg, falls into the Weser at Elfleet; this river then takes its course right into the North sea, betwixt the Elbe and the Ems: having a great number of sand banks and shoals, it is difficult of access and dangerous to navigate.

Although there are several smaller rivers than those mentioned which fall into the Weser, and a considerable deal of business done by means of them, yet none are of any consequence, nor are they navigable to a great extent into the interior.

The Werre becomes navigable at Kreutsburg: on this river a great quantity of earthen-ware is sent from Hesse, from the Thuringer-forest and Wanfred. Almost all the towns that lay near the Weser are supplied with deals and barks, that are sent down the Werre and Weser in floats.

The Fulda becomes navigable at Hirschfeld, and falls at Munden into the Weser, from whence it is navigated to Cassel with small vessels. Cassel is 35 English miles north from Hirschfeld, which contains 500 houses, and its principal article of export is linen.

The trade beyond the extent of the Weser and those rivers mentioned which fall into it, is chiefly carried on by land carriage, where the convenience of the Elbe and the Rhine cannot be felt, therefore the trade upon the Weser must always be limited; the impediment attending the approach to the Weser, from the North sea, is another obstacle, but of less moment, for ships coming from sea cannot come up to Bremen, but must be unloaded at Bracke or Elfleet; however, they have proper lighters to convey the merchandise to and from thence to the town, when there are no impediments in the river.

As the river Weser, like the Elbe, is now blockaded, it is necessary to explain, by what means Bremen now carries on her trade; in this point that city labours under greater inconveniences than Hamburg, if not more danger likewise.

Since the blockade of the Weser, the former trade by that river has been carried on by means of the river Jahde, or rather by a bay or inlet, south-west from the entrance into the Weser; the navigation from the North sea to it is very intricate and difficult, so that it is only calculated for the smaller sized vessels. The anchorage ground in the Jahde is very indifferent, and even dangerous in autumn, and when the frost is setting in, there is no harbour for ships to run into or lay up in for security against the floating ice, except being hauled into some of the creeks, or on shore.

Small vessels of from 70 to 80 tons burthen, at high water, can go up to Varel, a small straggling town at the south part or extremity of the bay, on the river Jahde, from whence it is about from 1 to 2 English miles, and there load and discharge; but vessels of from 200 to 300 tons, must discharge about ten miles lower down in the river; and those again drawing a greater depth of water, chiefly lay some distance off Eckwarden, a town on the east side of the river, nearly at the entrance in the bay; the roadstead is some distance from it, formed by the land betwixt the Weser and the Jahde.

As the vessels lay at anchor in this river, they are loaded or discharged by lighters, and what they call kahns, both flat bottomed vessels, which pass over the sand banks betwixt the Jahde and the Weser, entirely out of the reach of the British cruisers; the craft employed in transporting merchandise to and from the Weser and Jahde are left dry, upon these banks, long before low water, if they do not make their passage whilst the water continues high. Those are the sand banks which protect this description of craft from the surge of the sea, as they are obliged to go round the point of land betwixt the Jahde and the Weser, and make the long voyage up the latter river before they reach Bremen; this is a danger and risk which merits the consideration of the merchant and underwriter.

BREMEN

Is one of the oldest cities in the north of Germany; as early as 837 it is mentioned as a city increasing in commerce and riches; and, in 1158, we have already mentioned that it colonized Livonia and founded Riga; it rose in opulence and commerce as society became civilized and improved; it was one of the principal cities of the Hanseatic League; it is now considered as an imperial city in conjunction with Hamburg and Lubeck.

Bremen is situated on the Weser, about 100 or 120 miles from the North sea; it is a free imperial city, governed by 24 senators and 4 burgo masters, distant from Hamburg and Cuxhaven about 60 miles, in a triangular situation from both. The chief port for unloading vessels bound to Bremen is at a place called Braake, upon the Weser, distant from Bremen 30 miles, where vessels of from 200 to 250 tons burthen can discharge their cargoes into lighters and lay up in tolerable safety. Vessels of larger burthen, of from 4 to 500 tons, are obliged to unload their cargoes into lighters at a distance of about 10 or 15 miles below Braake in the river, (and near to a small village, called Bremer Lehe, in the Hanoverian dominions). When a vessel arrives at Braake, or as near to it as she can come, it is required that the captain, mate, or supercargo, proceed immediately to Elsfleet, near where the river Hunte falls into the Weser, subject to the Duke of Oldenburg, and there give in an account of the cargo, that the duties may be duly paid before any part of it can be discharged.

All lighters are obliged to stop at Elsfleet in passing up and down the Weser, for the same reasons. The highest duties, payable to the Duke of Oldenburg, do not amount to more than one per cent. upon the declared value, at the highest, and upon many articles not near so much. There is also a small transit duty on all goods passing through Bremen for the interior parts of the continent, which, at the highest, is not more than 1 per cent. on the value.

The river Weser runs through the city of Bremen, and divides the old from the new town, which is very convenient for trade, and enables the merchants to have their goods discharged out of the lighters on the quay, in the centre of the town, or even into their own warehouses, adjoining the river.

Bremen, having the convenience of conveying goods by water some distance towards the interior of Germany, they proceed afterwards by land to those places to which they are designed, either up the Rhine to Bavaria, Saxony, Switzerland, Italy, &c. &c. There is at Bremen a harbour, or dock, at a place called Vagesack, on the Hanoverian side of the Weser, about 12 or 15 miles below the city, and from Braake, the same distance; but, owing to the shallowness of the river, there is not a sufficient depth of water to admit loaded vessels to go up to it, but where ships in general winter; it is likewise convenient for such as require repairing. Several ships of considerable burthen are built here every year; and good oak timber is brought down in plenty, and at a reasonable rate.

In Bremen there are many opulent commercial houses: the place has always had a regular steady business, and avoided many inconveniences, which Hamburg at several times has experienced.

By the Weser, Werre, and Fulda, and other rivers of less note, Bremen receives from Saxony, Hess, and Hanover, produce and manufactured goods, linens in particular, a little wood, some grain, and seeds: in return it supplies those places with the produce of both the Indies, Portugal, and Spain; and carries on a very considerable forwarding trade, to and from the interior of the continent, in British produce and manufactures, particularly in the lower parts of Germany.

This city partakes so much of the trade of Hamburg, that the description of the commerce of that city becomes applicable to that of Bremen; with this difference, that Hamburg, on account of its extensive interior communication, by means of the river Elbe, as well as the superior conveniences in general for trade, carries on a very extensive com-

merce, whilst that of Bremen is more limited, being chiefly confined to the circle of Westphalia. It has no bank, but an exchange, and several very good institutions, upon the principle of many small commercial republics.

The share of the trade of Germany which it enjoys is by no means contemptible. During the period in which Hamburg reaped so much benefit by the French entering Holland, Bremen had the following number of vessels in her port:

Year.	Vessels.
1799	1024
1800	578
1801	637
1798	964
1802	1164
1803	901
1804 like Hamburg, none on account of the blockade.	

Whilst Hamburg experienced the inconvenience of being occupied by the Danes, in 1801, Bremen escaped all the inconvenience of these times; but it now partakes of that of the blockade, as is already mentioned. All goods and manufactures, as well as the ships of all nations, when its navigation is free, are admitted here.

The merchants of this place, when the Weser was free, fitted out annually several vessels for the Greenland and herring fisheries, in which they were successful, having always a considerable demand, at home, for the produce; in the year 1803, they fitted out eight ships to Greenland, which brought home fourteen whales, and they produced 1250 butts of oil. The number of vessels which belonged to Bremen, in 1804, were 170, being 17683 corn lasts, or about 35400 tons in all.

The custom in the purchase and sale of merchandise here is as variable as at Hamburg.

Their books and accounts are kept in rix dollars and grot, reckoning 72 grot to a rix dollar.

Their Exchange course is on Amsterdam, 140 rix dollars, carl d'ors, more or less, for 100 rix dollars banco.

Hamburg, 144 rix dollars, more or less, for 100 rix dollars banco.

London, 601 rix dollars, more or less, for £.100 sterling, at 2 usd.

One rix dollar currency has $2\frac{1}{4}$ marks, 6 kopffstücke, 16 Dütchin, 18 Flinriche, 48 schillings, 72 grot, or 360 schwaren.

Ducats commonly go here for $2\frac{3}{4}$ rix dollars. There are whole, half, and quarter specie dollars.

COPPER COIN.

Schwaren, of which 5 are reckoned 4 pfennings, or 1 grot.

FOREIGN COIN IN CIRCULATION HERE.

Brunswick carl d'ors, old French Louis d'or, and Prussian Frederick d'ors which are taken at 5 rix dollars; ducats at $2\frac{3}{4}$ rix dollars.

Bills of Exchange, payable in Bremen, have eight days grace.

WEIGHTS.

One cnt. has 116lb.

One shippound has $2\frac{1}{2}$ cnt. or 290lb.

One stone of flax is 20lb.

One stone of wool or feathers is 10lb.

One pound has 2 marks, 16 ounces, 32 loth, 64 drams, or 256 ort, or pennyweights.

10lb. in Bremen is 11lb. in England.

102lb. do. is 103lb. in Amsterdam.

259lb. do. is 260lb. in Embden.

34lb. do. is 35lb. in Hamburg.

58lb. do. is 63lb. in Lisbon.

41lb. do. is 50lb. in Russia.

MEASURE.

68 Bremen ells are 43 yards English.

11 do. are 11 ells Brabant.

37 do. are 31 ells Amsterdam.

106 do. are 107 ells Hamburg.

20 Bremen feet make 19 feet English.

7 Bremen cubic feet make 6 cubic feet English.

CHAPTER IV.

Of the River Ems. Its short interior Communication. The Dollart. Its convenient Situation for the Dutch Trade. Of Embden. A Free Port. Its Trade. Establishment for Fisheries. Number of Vessels arriving. Increasing Trade, arising from the Blockade of the Rivers Elbe and Weser. Its Monies, Weights, and Measures.

THE river Ems has a very limited interior communication, the tide flowing not more than fifteen to twenty miles up it. This river, which takes its rise only in the territory of Munster receives the river Hase a little above Meppin, and the Söste at Leer, and is navigable at no great distance in its current; it then runs by the Dollart, a sort of a bay betwixt Embden and the Dutch coast, into the North Sea, in two branches; one called the eastern, the other the western Ems, forming betwixt them the island of Borcum. This river formerly passed close by Embden, from a cut being made to force the current of the river that way; but, being neglected, it has taken its course by the coast of Groningen. There is, however, a narrow channel from Embden kept clear, in consequence of four sluices in the town, which are opened whilst the ebb tide continues.

This river has received a considerable degree of celebrity during the last ten years, not from its extent, but the local advantages, just at its mouth, near Embden, and the political situation of Holland; enjoying a free navigation by its neutrality, and being under the protection of Prussia, and, above all, contiguous to Delfzyl, an excellent entrance into Holland, by a

spacious and large canal running through the northern provinces, by the city of Groningen, into the Zuyder Zee,—of course communicating with all Holland and Flanders; the trade of which countries, and some parts of Germany, and France, may be said to be carried on by the mouth of the river Ems.

EMBDEN,

In East Friesland, so late as 1266, was looked upon as a shelter for pirates. The Hanseatic League suffering from them, Hamburg took possession of this place, it afterwards made some progress; but in 1433, it was subdued by the Hamburgers again; from the inconveniences the English merchant adventurers experienced about this time, in 1564, they removed hither, but two years after quitted it, to reside at Antwerp: since that period it has gradually advanced in commerce, and became a part of the Prussian kingdom, which we have already mentioned. In 1751, the King of Prussia declared it a free port, since which time, and by means of the different wars in which Holland was a party, Embden has gained considerable commercial consequence, more particularly as it is so conveniently situated for the Dutch to carry on their commerce with the greatest security in time of war; the duties being a mere trifle for vessels coming to this port they can take their clearance without ever unloading, at little expense, and proceed on their voyage.

As Embden has a considerable intercourse, by the canals of East Friesland, with Groningen, Friesland, Holland, Brabant, Flanders, and even France, in time of war with England, and when the blockade of the Texel was in full vigour, from its being a free port, and under neutral protection, its commerce was considerable, as we have stated, but, not arising from the natural course of its own river and trade, it rather became the entrepot betwixt England, Holland, and Germany, and the Baltic, as it now will most likely, although the French interdict the Dutch trading by that channel. Goods, however, can be forwarded from Embden, when there is sufficient water in the Ems, to within a short distance of Munster, at little more than 35s. per ton: from that city, they are then conveyed by land carriage to the interior of the continent, even to Switzerland and Italy, but to Frankfort on the Mayne and other parts of Germany, at a moderate rate; by the same conveyance the French themselves, have got indigo from the India Sales of London, to dye their blue cloth for their army.

As the establishment and success of fisheries have always given wealth and power, where they have been encouraged and protected, so it may be said to have given rise partly to Embden; in 1769, a company was established, to which the King of Prussia granted a charter the year following, and the stock only amounted to 603900 Dutch current florins, divided into 2745 shares of 220 florins each. The committee for inspecting the affairs of this company reside at Berlin, but the special direction is conducted by three members residing in Embden. The charter of this company a short time ago expired, but it was renewed: they have already increased their boats of late years to 60, which have produced them annually, near 1000 tons of herrings, and employed the greater part of the lower class of people.

In the years 1781 and 1782, a great share of trade went through this place, but the French revolution, and particularly their overrunning Holland, gave a new life to it. In 1781, the ships cleared outwards were 1025, and those which entered inwards were only 1004.

The number of ships which sailed from Embden, and properly belonging to the merchants of that place was, in the year 1784, 273, being 19,289 lasts, or 38,578 tons; vessels for the herring fishery were 43, making 1280 lasts, or 2560 tons, manned with 550 men.

In the same year there was imported, by sea, in 482 ships and vessels,

Coffee	centr.	808
Iron	—	2400
French brandy	pipes	493
Corn and grain from the Baltic	last	3419
Hemp	—	180
Timber	for rx.	37000
Coarse linen	ells	134000
Rice	cwt.	1690
Flax seed	barrels	972
Pot-ashes	centr.	1508
Sail-cloth	ells	34300
Melasses	centr.	1962
Leaf tobacco	for rx.	21000
Tea	centr.	1074
Tar, pitch, train oil	barrels	2312
Wine	hhds	1319
Sugar	cwt.	840

The exportation in the same year, was in 568 ships.

Butter	centr.	4346
Grain	lasts	3277
Herrings	barrels	11862
Honey	—	126
Cheese	centr.	27250
Linen	pieces	1175
Clinkers	—	1022000
Rape-seed oil	lasts	377
Knitted stockings	pair	15800
Linen thread	centr.	795

The imports to Embden from Great Britain, are such as go direct to Holland in times of peace, and to the Elbe and Weser at present. The exports from Embden are now estimated to be annually from 140 to 180,000 quarters of oats to England, about 20,000 quarters of rape seed to England and Holland, 30 to 40,000 quarters of beans to England and France, 20,000 quarters of barley to Norway and other places, several thousand firkins of butter to London, and vast quantities of cheese, before it was prohibited by the French, from Holland. Some linens manufactured in Westphalia are shipped by this channel.

Merchandise and British manufactures transported through Embden for the interior of Germany, or other places, were lately interrupted at Meppin, by the French, but the King of Prussia caused that obstruction soon to be removed and now it is free.

As we have before observed, Embden was a port free from any restraint to the ships, merchandise, or manufactures of all nations; it is, therefore, difficult to ascertain the importation and exportation at the present time; but some idea may be formed of the state of the trade, when, in 1799, 3402 vessels entered inwards, and 2151 sailed outwards, and it is since stated, that, till the French interrupted the trade in that direction, the harbour could scarcely contain the quantity of shipping frequenting it.

No doubt that by this channel the Dutch, Flemings, and even the French, are enabled to carry on their Baltic trade through the canal of Holstein along the coast, and without the reach of the British cruisers; besides, it is easy for the residents of Embden to purchase Dutch vessels, or to transfer them, and securely navigate them under Prussian colours. In 1804, ex-

clusive of the great increase of the commerce of Embden, it is stated, in that year, that the vessels belonging to Embden were no less than 500 employed in the carrying trade only.

They had a branch of the bank of Berlin established here in 1769, which we have already described under the Institutions of Prussia. Several insurance companies have been established since the year 1772.

They have no edifice for an exchange at Embden; their business is transacted in a large hall at a coffee-house.

They keep their books and accounts in rix dollars, at 54 stivers, each stiver at 10 wittens; also in guilders and stivers, 20 of the latter make one of the former; each stiver has 10 wittens.

Guilders at 10 schaf, 1 schaf at 10 witten currency.

The coins that circulate here are as follow:

1 specie dollar is $1\frac{1}{3}$ dollar currency; $2\frac{2}{3}$ mean dollars, $3\frac{3}{5}$ guilders, 4 marks, 12 schillings, 24 flinderkes, 36 schafs, 72 stivers, 96 grots, 144 seyferts, 288 oerts, or 720 wittens.

The bank of Embden depends on that of Berlin.

WEIGHTS.

1 shippound is 3 centner, or 300 lb.; the pound at 16 ounces.

21 lb. Embden is 28 lb. English.

100 lb. ditto $102\frac{1}{2}$ lb. Hamburg.

MEASURES.

15 Embden ells are 11 yards English.

29 ditto 28 Brabant ells.

35 ditto 34 ells Amsterdam.

53 ditto 50 Flemish ells ditto.

47 ditto 55 ells Hamburg.

73 Embden feet are 71 feet English.

Corn measure is the last of 15 barrels; 4 verps, or 2 schefels, make a barrel.

One last in Hamburg make $16\frac{1}{2}$ barrels in Embden, or 66 verps.

CHAPTER V.

General Observations on the Blockade of the Rivers Elbe and Weser. The new Channels of Trade in consequence thereof. Amount of the Imports and Exports of Great Britain to and from Germany, from the Year 1700 till 1804. Likewise of the Trade and Navigation for the Years 1800, 1801, and 1802. Also similar particulars of Holland for the same Period.

FROM the description that has been given of these rivers, it is clear that their importance to the German empire is extremely great, and that the freedom of their navigation ought to be maintained at all risks. Nothing is so contrary to the law of nature and of nations, as the conduct of the French in this respect, and modern times afford no example of such an audacious infringement of essential and indisputable rights on the one hand, and of lame and impolitic submission on the other.

The infringements committed by the French are however of too serious a nature to be long submitted to; and either the Germans will lose their independence altogether, or else they must rise and vindicate their rights.

The Rhine was altogether a German river till the conquests of Louis XIV. made it partly French; and by the subjection of Holland, of the Austrian Low Countries, and the country of Liege, it is now almost entirely French; but the other three rivers, neither can nor ought to be in any degree French, until the German body is dissolved, and Prussia falls.

Policy and necessity sometimes make nations submit for a while to situations that, were they to be permanent, would be nothing less than attended with total ruin. Of this species of temporary submission must be considered the acquiescence in the invasion of Hanover, and the interruption of the navigation of the rivers in question.

Though commerce is changeable, and apt to remove its abode, yet it seldom settles in any place without a prospect of uninterrupted security.

By degrees the course of the northern trade, which had been interrupted by the blockade of the Elbe and Weser, has opened itself new ways. Although the Sound is free for the English and neutrals, the towns of Stettin, Magdeburg, and Embden have got a considerable share of the former trade of Hamburg.

To Stettin a great part of the Spanish trade from Hamburg in the linens of Silesia has been removed; and it is said, that the King of Prussia, to promote it, has advanced some millions of dollars, which has enabled several mercantile houses of Stettin to furnish ships direct to Spain.

The town of Magdeburg has now become a staple place for British and colonial produce, which formerly went up the Elbe from Hamburg; therefore goods that formerly came from Hamburg and Lüneburg, through the Hanoverian territories, to Brunswick, Frankfort, Cassel, and even to Leipsic and Nürnberg, are now forwarded from Magdeburg.

From Embden there is an immense transport of merchandise, with Prussian passports, to Munster, the province of Westphalia, and even to Holland; but lately all trade between Holland and Embden has been interrupted, except by the Zuyder Sea.

We must once more refer, for our sentiments on this subject, to the close of the first chapter in the first book of this work, and to the numerous observations which will be found dispersed throughout it, by what channels commerce to the continent can be carried on with security, so long as matters remain in their present state, and the Elbe and the Weser continue blockaded.

To sum up the whole, Stettin affords an extensive avenue, if Prussia wisely knew how to avail itself of it. The description of Holstein and Schleswig will shew that, so long as they are suffered to remain independent, they will afford facility to the trade of Hamburg, and from thence to the interior. The means by which Bremen carries on her trade is shewn; and, as to Embden, the late French decree interdicting the trade of Hol-

land with Great Britain, will most likely produce the blockade of Holland, and force through the neutral port of Embden, more or less, the trade of that unfortunate country. In consequence of that decree, we have given, a state of the trade of Holland with Great Britain, during the same period, we have given that of the other powers, to shew the complete state of the trade and navigation of Great Britain with all the northern nations.

In stating the amount of the imports and exports of Great Britain to and from Germany, according to the official accounts from the custom-house books, some observations are necessary; comparing this statement with the remarks made of a similar one for Prussia, from which kingdom the greatest part of the linen manufactured was exported by way of Hamburg. Such share as was exported to England is entered in the custom-house books under the head of Germany, though it properly belongs to Prussia, the same remark applies to exports. On the other hand, Prussia takes a great part of her dye-woods and colours, and colonial produce from Hamburg, which has been exported even from Great Britain. The trade betwixt us and Germany underwent but little alteration, until four years after the French revolution commenced, when, as we observed, this trade changed all at once, like the removal of a great river from its old bed, into that of a new one.

The following tables together will give a complete account of the German trade for 104 years, and prove, from the immense and sudden increase, that it is through that channel that Britain now supplies nearly the whole continent.

The second table of the trade and navigation of Great Britain with Germany is during three of the most remarkable years in the north of Europe. The first when the northern confederacy took place; the second the battle of Copenhagen, and when the Danes took possession of Hamburg; the third a year of peace, which produced but little variation from the preceding years in the trade betwixt Great Britain and Germany.

Amount of the Imports and Exports of Great Britain to and from Germany, in different Years, betwixt 1700 and 1786; and from 1791, each Year, to the present, distinguishing England from Scotland.

GREAT BRITAIN.

Years.	Imported.	Exported.
1701	£.729097	£.1005306
1705	676381	978104
1710	457878	975803
1715	656417	877515
1720	508432	760224
1725	759969	1039375
1730	831390	1092490
1735	835180	1197776
1740	747795	1091061
1745	674507	1486157
1750	645513	1255872
1755	696093	1361964
1760	668076	1544016
1765	602624	1869465
1770	684463	1272569
1773	454186	1337552
1782	524882	1549745
1785	559177	1402284

ENGLAND.

SCOTLAND.

Years.	Imported.	Exported.	Imported.	Exported.
1791	£.600097	£.1839418	£.115530	£.50327
1792	562742	2078047	87694	61063
1793	731423	2447385	62672	35310
1794	757361	5887736	38777	55189
1795	930929	7991783	89703	80225
1796	1992639	8066707	89636	107282
1797	1522143	8260207	54283	124347
1798	2003079	10503247	88752	186218
1799	2613809	8442073	206324	231224
1800	2182927	12010572	169270	654252
1801	1900936	10130027	143238	838325
1802	1070941	9607781	121089	707584
1803	835570	5933275	83568	285825
1804			48519	76117

Table of the Trade and Navigation of Great Britain with Germany in the Years 1800, 1801, 1802.

Year	Value of im-ports from Germany.			Value of Exports to Germany.			Shipping.															
	British manu-facture and produce.			Foreign mer-chandise.		Total of British and foreign mer-chandise export-ed.	Inwards.				Outwards.											
	British manu-facture and produce.			Foreign mer-chandise.		Total of British and foreign mer-chandise export-ed.	British.		Foreign.		British.		Foreign.									
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	veff.	tons.	men.	veff.	tons.	men.	veff.	tons.	men.							
1800	2352197	15	3	4364120	8	5	8300470	18	0	12664591	6	5	468	61877	3341	549	616	87406	4824	555	78205	3898
1801	2044175	2	7	4928616	18	8	6186687	2	7	11115304	1	3	335	47854	2513	613	492	68274	3840	663	95475	4606
1802	1192030	10	4	3992601	2	6	6322765	8	0	10315366	10	6	467	74871	3800	115	736	117470	6020	164	26770	1284

Although the French have prohibited the direct commerce of Holland with this island, yet we have given a state of the trade and navigation of Great Britain with that country, in conformity with those already given of all the other northern powers, and during three remarkable years, by which a correct estimate may now be made of the whole trade of the north of Europe. This table serves to shew the commerce betwixt Britain and Holland, during the single year of peace, in a striking point of view.

The Amount of the Imports and Exports of Great Britain to and from Holland in different Years betwixt 1700 and 1786 ; and from 1791, each Year to the present, distinguishing England from Scotland.

GREAT BRITAIN.

Years.	Imported.	Exported.
1701	£.521257	£.2138569
1705	572209	1715002
1710	637447	2071306
1715	436588	1945738
1720	482085	1915112
1725	563684	1777724
1730	568102	1766526
1735	524625	1954837
1740	403664	1754204
1745	431374	2278018
1750	325487	2204065
1755	276237	1710587
1760	412397	1784442
1765	420273	2026772
1770	352535	1766333
1773	411642	1873860
1782	2485	90933
1785	468121	1506303

ENGLAND.

Years.	Imported.	Exported.
1791	£.694130	£.1158781
1792	633780	1340707
1793	672560	1486372
1794	840747	1553956
1795	115758	111115
1796	196981	507270
1797	408960	1338196
1798	481409	938102
1799	158187	17652
1800	802138	3168735
1801	829865	3453320
1802	791214	4861862
1803	489137	1542388
1804		

SCOTLAND.

Imported.	Exported.
£.159853	£.207093
167754	175742
131745	131762
172604	86959
3828	
12952	8997
117407	2719
112694	
42245	
170461	39878
196092	37267
183323	96135
141266	22967
146063	9386

Trade and Navigation of Great Britain with Holland in the Years 1800, 1801, and 1802.

Years.	Value of Exports to Holland.				Shipping.															
	Value of Imports from Holland.		British manufacture.	Foreign merchandise.	Total of British and foreign merchandise exported to Holland.				Inwards.						Outwards.					
						British.			Foreign.			British.			Foreign.					
						veff.	tons.	men.	veff.	tons.	men.	veff.	tons.	men.	veff.	tons.	men.			
	£.	s. d.	£.	s. d.	£.	s. d.														
1800	972600	14 4	20414	16 4	3188198	13 7	3208613	9 11	3	871	44	832	58018	3677		313	23446	1525		
1801	1025958	14 7	56738	0 7	3440006	18 4	3496744	18 11	12	1828	91	913	69656	3978	34	292	27874	1640		
1802	974537	5 4	757996	1 11	4200001	7 5	4957997	9 4	852	110235	5808	600	39276	2445	857	453	34090	2168		

BOOK VII.

CHAPTER I.

Preliminary Matter relative to British Commerce with the North of Europe, replaced by the Cultivation of the internal Resources of Great Britain and Ireland.

IN order the better to form an estimate of the importance of the trade with the northern parts of Europe as it now is, and as it probably may be in the course of a short period, it will be necessary to take a view of the internal state of the industry, resources, and commerce of the United Kingdom.

England having surpassed all other nations in wealth, the value of money in it is very different from what it is in them. Amongst many others of the consequences of this situation of things, into which it is by no means our purpose to inquire, one that is very essential, and productive of most extensive and important consequences, is, that the produce of those countries that are poorer can be afforded by them, at such a price, as discourages the production of the same articles amongst ourselves.

This is more particularly the case with Russia and the northern nations, than with any other. We have seen that the greatest part of the produce of Russia that is exported comes to this country, and yet of that produce we could ourselves furnish nearly enough, or we could get it from North America; but the great value of money in Russia procures that country the preference.

It is, however, very fortunate for this country that the Russians and Swedes, instead of endeavouring to sell as much as possible at a reasonable rate, always sell at as high a price as they can obtain; otherwise we could make little iron in this country, and all the other articles would be discouraged; but, as it is, we have now no inducement to take any of those articles farther than what is necessary to supply the deficiency of those produced at home.

Though the observations here are chiefly applied to Russia, it is only because it is of more importance than the other nations of the north, not that the case is different; for it is with all the others nearly the same,—exception being made of Prussia, which follows the same line of conduct that France did under Colbert, in the reign of Louis XIV. Manufactures of all sorts are encouraged, and high duties laid on the importation of almost every article. To a certain extent, this is good policy, but not if carried too far; for the home manufacturers having a monopoly of their own market, never excel in quality, or work cheap, which competition only enables or rather compels people to do. Colbert's plan did not succeed with France, as other nations, particularly the English and Dutch, finding they must pay in specie, imitated, and at last excelled them in many branches. In fact, the French only retained their superiority in articles of high luxury, of which they are themselves the greatest consumers. Enamelling, jewellery, embroidery, and some more arts remained there; but the arts of making paper, glass, hats, watches, &c. rose in England and Holland, in Colbert's time, and chiefly through his selfish views. Prussia, indeed need not fear the like consequences, for she has not the like excellence; but, as to losing the trade with other nations, that is to be expected;—for when Prussia has extended her manufactures all she can, it will be but for her own consumption, unless she has some regard to reciprocity in trading with other nations.

From what has already been said, and from other tables and observations that will be found in the second part of this work, the reader will find full materials for making up his mind on

this business; and it will clearly be seen, that most part of the articles which this country buys from the northern powers, have risen in price most rapidly, while those consumed in the country have nearly remained as they were.

As, in the former part of this work, we have endeavoured to shew that, without the commercial connexion with England, the northern nations, and particularly Russia, would have little trade; so we shall in this shew by what means Britain may, if reduced to that necessity, become independent of those northern nations, for the staple articles which we import from them.

The possession of whatever is valuable excites envy and jealousy, and nothing does so more than the possession of commerce. Sometimes that jealousy is well founded, and sometimes not; in the present case, we have proved that the jealousy of the northern nations was not well founded; but it is far from certain that the proofs brought forward will produce the effect intended; for this is a question that interests the passions, in which, therefore, the judgment does not act with its full force.

The principal cause for our immense importations, from the north of Europe, is the great difference that there is in the value of money in those countries and in this; a difference that can enable them always to suit their prices to our market; that is, so as to be below that at which we can produce the same article ourselves.

It fortunately happens that avarice counteracts this state of things, in some instances to a great degree, and to a certain degree in all. Thus, for example, we can supply ourselves with iron at as cheap a price as the Swedes and Russians are disposed to sell it; but not at so cheap a price as they might sell it if they would.—Had they been disposed to extend their iron trade, instead of always demanding the highest price they could get, we should never have made the progress we have done in our iron works.

The price, in fact, of every article produced in the north, and fit for the English market, seems to be regulated by the price the same articles can be raised at in England, and not according to the natural price. Thus we find that tallow and hides that come to the English market are above three times the natural proportion of price, to that part of the beast that is consumed in Russia. Naturally, the pound of tallow is not sold at a higher price than a pound of meat; but, in Russia, in many parts, it is sold at more than ten and even fifteen times the price; this however, was not the case till the exportation

to England, which raised the price of tallow and hides, and lowered the price of the rest of the carcass, in the interior parts of that empire.

The reason for entering into this here, is, that the great extent of our imports may be clearly accounted for, as there are very few articles imported from Russia which we cannot produce; but the fact is, that the value of money is so different in the two countries, that, whatever can be brought to this market, becomes too dear for their own consumption. We see the Russian peasant supplied with abundance of animal food, but not able to afford to burn a tallow candle; while we find the English peasants burning their tallow, though they cannot afford to live on animal food.

It is the great prices that England can afford to give, and does give, for the produce of other countries, that raises, all over Europe, every sort of article that comes to her market. The dearth of corn in England has enriched Mecklenburg, Poland, and many other countries, in a few years, and its wealth is gradually diffusing itself into other parts, for other objects; but, so long as the proportionate value of money remain as they are, it is to be feared that we shall still continue to purchase, instead of produce; although the ultimate tendency of such a conduct must be extremely ruinous to us, as it has been to all nations that ever rose high above others in wealth.

At the beginning of the last century, about the time when the foundation of Petersburgh was laid, the exports and imports to and from this country and Russia were nearly equal to each other; and did not amount to above 100,000*l.* a year on each side; between 1710 and 1720, the balance turned against England, and the trade has had a regular increase ever since; the imports from thence, however, increasing far more rapidly than our exports.

The natural productions of England and Russia are, with a few exceptions, nearly the same; so that till England became a manufacturing country, and Russia advanced in civilization, she had had no occasion for any article with which she could be supplied from that quarter; and, on the other hand, England could not afford to purchase, and had no motive for purchasing, from Russia, any thing she could produce within herself.

The gradual improvement and civilization in Russia, together with the unexampled progress which the English made in commerce and manufactures created in time a real advantage in the exchange of commodities; and it is at this day, perhaps,

the only branch of our European commerce to which we have a right to look for greater extension. Many branches were on the decline, even before the commencement of the French revolution; others were nearly stationary, and a few, (at the head of which we must place the commerce with Russia, were on the increase until 1793, when they received a check from enormous duties and prohibitions that took place at that time.

In a work of this nature, agriculture, on its own account, ought not to be in any way considered; but its intimate connexion with the general commerce, as well as in a still more particular manner the manufactures of the country, renders it an object to which it is necessary to pay some attention.

While we are upon this part of the subject, it may not be improper to observe, that it will be the interest of all the powers around the Baltic, but of Russia in particular, to treat the merchants of this country with great liberality, as well as to reduce the duties on British manufactures. It will be seen by the tables, in their proper place, that we import from every northern power in Europe, more than we export, and from Russia four times as much; while we are carrying on a trade with the northern parts of America, which can supply most part of the same articles; where, instead of the balance being against us, it is very much in our favour. If then, by any accident, the connexion between this country and the northern parts of Europe should be interrupted, though for a very short time only, the trade would never again fall into its old channel to any thing like its present amount; for, even without having recourse to the British plantations, we could raise within ourselves what we require, and employ the same quantity of tonnage and number of men, in carrying the same articles, as are now employed to bring the produce from the northern powers; and were we to follow their example, and as vigilantly produce their raw materials within ourselves, as they are anxious to establish and to prohibit our manufactures, they would soon lose their trade, and this country would profit by all that advantage which they would lose.

This circumstance appears to be totally unknown to the northern powers themselves, who have, for a number of years, acted as if Britain could not do without their trade, but as if they could do without the trade of Britain.

If, indeed, they judge from the importance and nature of the articles they import from us, which are of luxury only, they draw a true conclusion; but then they should consider

that the great article they receive in return is *money*, and that to a far more considerable amount than they do from any other nation.

It is easy for Russia to say, England must have our tallow, hemp, flax, iron, timber, &c. but we can do without their cloth, cutlery, toys, trinkets, or articles of luxury and taste. This is very easily said, and seems plausible; indeed, it not only seems so, but is calculated to go down with those who have a superficial knowledge of the subject, or who consider one side of the question only. The case, however, would be greatly altered if we were to speak on our side and say, "As for the manufactures we send out to the north of Europe, we send more to America in one month than we do there in a year; we can produce hemp, flax, and iron enough at home, and in our own plantations in America. As for the other articles of tallow, timber, &c. we can have timber from our North American possessions, and give goods in return; oil from our fisheries and our own produce will supply the place of tallow; so that we shall keep some millions of ready money in our pockets by the change."

We shall leave to those concerned, to judge which of the statements is the most founded on reality and fact, and therefore to determine which of the parties, the northern powers or Britain, are the most deeply interested in preserving the connexion that now exists.

To imagine that the order of things that now exists will remain because it exists at the present time, is a very general error; but the smallest degree of reflection, or recurrence to history, will set the matter right, and shew of how transitory and evanescent a nature are the wealth, importance, and connexions of nations.

The Hanseatic League, and the fallen greatness of the towns and cities of which it consisted, proves that commercial wealth and greatness are not less fugitive than that acquired by other means.* It is, therefore, of the highest importance, where there is a good commercial connexion, to preserve and encourage it.

We see, from the advancement of this country in arts and industry, that much has been owing to taking advantage of circumstances, and the errors of our neighbours.

It is with a particular wish to point out the importance of the present moment, for the aggrandisement of this branch of

* The following document will shew what changes have happened in Europe within a period of no great length, and the rank of the different powers of Europe

commerce, that the following materials are collected and laid before commercial men, in all those countries of which we have treated; as well as with a view of proving to the respective governments, without whose care commerce cannot flourish, that it will be to their advantage to act with liberality, and embrace eagerly the present opportunity of extending and cementing their connexion, both political and commercial.

three hundred years ago, as published by *Paris de Crossis*, master of the ceremonies to Pope Julius II. in 1504.

- | | | | |
|----|---------------------|----|-------------------------|
| 1 | Emperor of Germany. | 13 | King of Bohemia. |
| 2 | King of the Romans. | 14 | Poland. |
| 3 | France. | 15 | Denmark. |
| 4 | Spain. | 16 | Republic of Venice. |
| 5 | Arragon. | 17 | Duke of Brittany. |
| 6 | Portugal. | 18 | Burgundy. |
| 7 | England. | 19 | Electoꝛ of Bavaria. |
| 8 | Sicily. | 20 | Saxony. |
| 9 | Scotland. | 21 | Brandenburg, |
| 10 | Hungary. | 22 | Archduke of Austria. |
| 11 | Navarre. | 23 | Duke of Savoy. |
| 12 | Cyprus. | 24 | Grand Duke of Florence. |

How different would the arrangement be now! and how many are extinct! where was *Russia* then? where now are *Arragon*, *Poland*, *Navarre*, *Cyprus*, *Venice*, *Brittany*, *Burgundy*, and *Savoy*? and where are the *Pope* and his *grand master* of the ceremonies.

CHAPTER II.

*General View of the Trade, Navigation, Manufactures, and
Finances of Great Britain and Ireland.*

IN taking a general view of the state of the United Kingdom from the documents that are essential for that purpose, we find, so far as it is necessary to examine in a work of this sort, that it now stands nearly as follows :

That 100 years ago the revenues of England, or rather at the beginning of the last century, amounted only to	£.2,500,000
That last year the ordinary revenues amounted to	45,641,422
That they are therefore augmented in the proportion of 1 to 18	
That at the former period our exports amounted to	55,000,000
That they last year amounted to near official value	34,500,000
Which is an augmentation in the proportion of 2 to 13.	
That, at the former period, our imports amounted to	3,000,000
That last year they amounted, reckoning the East India imports at the same rate as the preceding year, to upwards of	30,000,000

Which is an augmentation in the proportion of 1 to 10.

That at the former period the balance in our favour was on an average of 10 years

£.2,800,000

That at the latter period on the same average

10,000,000

Which is an augmentation in the proportion of 1 to $3\frac{1}{3}$ nearly.*

That at the first period our exports consisted chiefly in home manufactures and produce sent to the continent of Europe, and that at the latter period a great proportion consisted in East and West India produce, and that instead of a general trade to the continent of Europe, the northern nations, America, and our own colonies, were almost our only customers.

That those customers are very different from each other in regard to the nature of the goods they take. The continent of Europe takes more colonial and India produce than British manufactures.

That America takes from this country no East India produce at all, and but little from the West India islands, but that nearly all our exports there consist of British manufactures.

That, without commerce with the continent of Europe, it would be impossible to find sale for our East India and colonial produce, and that as an interruption in that trade must be attended with the worst of consequences to commerce in general, and that as the usual channels are cut off, it is necessary to cultivate and protect those that remain, with the greatest vigilance and attention.

That the most rapid increase of our trade, as well as of our revenues and burthens, has been since the year 1793, when the war broke out with France, which being of a nature entirely new, has produced a very uncommon effect.

The French have lost both the East India and West India trade, though, previous to the war, they had greatly more of the latter than England, and could undersell us on the continent, particularly in the articles of sugar and coffee.

The Dutch have also lost the greatest part of their trade.

The continent of Europe has been insecure, and therefore much capital has come over to this country.

* The values all along are rated values, not the real ones; but though the sum may not be quite exact, the proportions are so as the error at different times is equally great: if therefore they do not give exact information as to price, they do as to quantity, which is fully as important.

A variety of inventions, for the abbreviation of labour, have also tended greatly to increase the advantages that this country enjoys.

As our imports have increased in a still greater proportion than our exports, it is certain that our unprecedented wealth, and capacity of bearing burthens, do not principally arise from our foreign trade, but from our internal industry and improvement, and that therefore if our foreign exports fall off, we must cultivate internal resources, so as to keep down the imports in proportion, and then the wealth of this nation will not be diminished.

The purpose of the present work is to shew how the trade to the continent may be preserved, but if that cannot be done, owing either to the want of care, or some other circumstances, then to point out how we may improve our interior resources, so as to diminish importation.

With regard to Scotland, its progress has been so nearly similar to that of England, that there is not any occasion for making remarks upon it separately.

Ireland is however different; its burthens increase much more rapidly, while neither its internal industry nor foreign trade have augmented nearly so fast as those of England, though by nature its resources are full as great as those of Britain in proportion, it is therefore the portion of the kingdom that stands the most in need of being brought forward, by the cultivation of its internal resources.

It would not, by any means, be either proper in itself, or consistent with the plan of this work, to make a commentary or observation on every document that is laid before parliament, but to make general observations and point out general advantages, supporting what is said, by the documents produced.

A work of this sort is not composed for ignorant men, but for those who understand business, though they may want information on particular points, and must, of necessity, find benefit from having information from documents that are necessary to making up their minds, and forming a judgment on many different subjects.

It is besides to be remarked, that it is not from single insulated facts that conclusions can in general be drawn, but from an assemblage and union of a great number of facts; with which view it is, that the most essential facts relative to the state of trade, commerce, and industry in all their branches, are laid before the reader, on whose mind this simple impression is in-

tended to be made; that, as our expenses increase, we must endeavour to increase our means of bearing them, by encouraging our foreign trade; and if that either fall off, or cannot be extended and carried further, than by cultivating our internal resources.

In order to shew how much difference there is in the channels through which commerce flows since the French revolution. I have given the following statement of two years during the peace of 1782, and two years since; one at the close of the last war, and the year of peace following it, with the four nations we are now free to deal with.

	1784.	1785.	1801.	1802.
Russia	226461	233998	919843	1376399
Denmark	261998	322395	416475	537517
Sweden	57590	65307	111254	108296
Germany	1245438	1402284	11115304	10315366
	£.1791487	2023984	12562876	12337578

An Account of all Imports into Great Britain, the Produce of the West India Colonial Possessions, for three Years; to which is added, the first Cost and Charges of the East India Trade in the same Years, to shew the aggregate Amount of the East and West India Trade, and its Importance to the Country.

	1801	1802	1803
British West India Colonies, including Trinidad	£. 6759617	£. 7293316	£. 5786432
Conquered islands, exclusive of Trinidad	4105839	2699504	362014
Total	10865456	9992820	6148446
East Indies, first cost	6199293	5002713	4755475
Total amount of imports from the East and West Indies	17064749	14995533	10903921

*An Account of all West India Produce imported into Great Britain,
from the 5th January 1803, to the 5th January 1804.*

	Quantity.	Official or Rated Value.			Duty received within the Year.		
		£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Aloes	lbs. 23874	348	3	3	751	5	6
Arrow Root	— 33851	4219	7	0	148	4	3
Cocoa	cwt. 4685	11608	7	10	1730	8	8
Coffee	— 210075	1431851	11	0	46359	14	5
Ginger, dry	— 2554	3192	16	11	2016	12	3
preserved	lbs. 12434	520	9	3	450	8	4
Gum Guaiacum	— 6464	969	12	0	224	3	11
Juice of Limes	gallons 26137	1749	8	7	600	17	0
Marmalade	lbs. 6076	455	14	9	144	13	9
Molasses	cwt. 2607	1694	12	9	800	0	11
Oil, Castor	lb. & gal. 49080 & 895	5284	1	0	1352	16	11
Pepper, Cayenne	lbs. 2393	287	6	4	158	16	4
Pimento	— 1166314	29467	10	0	18324	5	6
Shruff	cwt. 354	973	13	5	315	7	9
Spirits, rum	gallons 4048258	370182	3	7	131968	8	1
shrub	— 2752	537	5	9	176	0	2
Succads	lbs. 21385	1469	19	0	1012	14	10
Sugar	cwt. 3087819	4221110	7	6	3078255	6	5
Tamarinds	lbs. 116557	770	0	10	1225	19	6
Tortoiseshell	— 14883	3361	17	0	1343	10	4
Turmeric	— 17188	188	7	8	186	16	3
Wood, Brazilletto	tons 25	171	1	3	15	13	2
Fustic	— 2612	22962	17	1	2031	7	10
Lignumvitæ	— 760	3426	17	6	620	16	0
Logwood	— 12703	146562	17	6	3467	2	6
Mahogany, Br. plan.	— 4058	41631	15	2	15904	19	10
Nicaragua	— 714	7059	16	1	576	16	7
Wool, cotton, Br. plan.	lbs. 7266490	273539	19	5	35504	9	0
Total . . . £.		6585597	19	5	3345670	16	0

The quantity of coffee imported into Great Britain, from the British West Indian colonies *only*, was, in the following years,

	Imported.
1802	383721 cwt.
1803	155648
1804	329606

The quantity of rum which was imported into, and exported from, Great Britain, for three years, ending 5th January 1803; 5th January 1804; and 5th January 1805; was

	Imported.	Exported.
1802	4765273 galls.	1336179 galls.
1803	4049276	680213
1804	2785316	1160846

The official or rated value of British manufactures and produce exported to the British plantations in the West Indies, from the 5th January, 1804, to the 5th January, 1805, was £.3408232 2s. 8d. sterling; to which is yet to be added the amount exported to the conquered islands.

An Account of the Quantity of Raw Sugar imported into, and of Refined Sugar exported from Great Britain; distinguishing British Plantation, Foreign Plantation, and East India, for the Year ending 5th January 1805; and of the Duties paid, and Drawbacks and Bounties received thereon.

	IMPORTED.				EXPORTED.						
	Raw.		Duty.	Quantity.	Raw.		Refined.		Total raw & ref. exp.		More imported than exported.
	Quantity.	cwt.			Drawback.	Quantity.	Bounty.	Quantity.	Drawback and Bounty.		
British Plantation	2976384	cwt.	£. 2656898	266688	£. 235521	376853	£. 807605	907337	£. 1043127	2069047	cwt.
Foreign Plantation	168274		23658	154949				154949		13325	
East India (sale amount)	104067		92142	27803				27803		76263	
Total	3248726		2772698	449440	235521	376853	807605	1090089	1043127	2158635	

Note.—The sums above stated are the actual payments in the year, and not the computed amount on the quantities exported or imported within the period of the account. The temporary duties under the acts 43d and 44th of his majesty, amounting to 743107l. 4s. 4d. and the drawbacks thereon to 50010l. 15s. 2d. are not included in the above.

In order to shew the total quantity exported, refined sugar is reduced into the denomination of raw, by allowing the proportion of 34 cwt. of raw to every 20 cwt. of refined.

Having already given a short sketch of the progress of British commerce, and when we consider the settlement of a single Flemish weaver in England was a circumstance of the highest importance; when we find, too, every branch of manufacture or commerce that is known in Europe, more or less encouraged in this country, we will finish, by giving actual statements of our present situation.

If there are any facts of doubtful authority advanced, relative to our former commercial situation, concerning which there may be different opinions, we are at least certain, that it is now ascertained beyond a possibility of doubt. Accounts are kept with all possible accuracy, and are annually laid before parliament of all our great mercantile transactions, and the foregoing tables are either copies or abstracts of those most authentic documents.

From the revolution of 1688, it is that we have to trace our manufacturing, our commercial, and our colonial greatness; likewise to the permanent and firm establishment of freedom amongst us, much is to be attributed, yet, to see the matter in its true light, we must take a review of the trade in its detail.

The places with which we deal, and the articles in which we deal, at the present time, to and from America, the West Indies, the East Indies, and Russia, are all branches of commerce almost totally unknown two centuries ago, and even 60 years past still in their infancy. Their aggregate amount is now immense, and far exceeds the whole of our trade at the end of the American war. The new branches are on the increase, and they already exceed, in amount, the old. The case is precisely similar with regard to the articles of commerce, amongst which cotton (till very lately unknown) now ranks the first.

The year 1802, was the greatest for our foreign commerce, in which year the manufactures and produce exported amounted to 26,990,000*l.* of which the following is the analysis nearly:

Articles unknown to commerce 200 years ago.	Cotton	£.7130000
	Wrought iron and cast	1618000
	Refined sugar	1541000
	Cotton yarn	744000
	Hops	60000
		£.11043000

	Brought forward	£.11043000
Old staple articles	Woollen goods	£.6487000
	Linens	895000
	Tin	231000
	Pewter and lead	276000
	Brass	408000
	Copper	669000
	Coals	536000
		-----£.9512000
		----- £.20555000

Of the remainder, 6435000 $\frac{1}{2}$ is composed of various articles not described, and the further complement consists of a number of manufactures, which, though not entirely new to this country, were almost totally neglected; we shall, however, suppose them to be original manufactures of the country, yet still the vastness of the change that has taken place will be sufficiently great.

The exports of foreign articles, not either produced or manufactured in this country, amounted to 14,418,000 $\frac{1}{2}$ in 1802.

In 1783, the annual product of the undermentioned manufactures of Great Britain was calculated in the following manner:

Woollen	£.16800000
Leather	10500000
Flax	1750000
Hemp	890000
Glass	630000
Paper	780000
Porcelain	1000000
Silk	3350000
Cotton	960000
Lead	1650000
Tin	1000000
Iron	8700000
Steel, plating, &c.	3400000
	----- 51310000

That iron, glass, and porcelain, was rapidly on the increase; tin and leather declining; paper, increasing; flax, rather falling; hemp, stationary; silk, rather increasing.

The following will shew the state and proportional quantities of the manufactures and produce of this country, as exported betwixt the years 1797 and 1804. Those on the advance in quantity exported are marked A; on the decline D; and stationary S; taken for the average of seven years.

Rank.	Articles.	Observations.
* X 1	Cottons	A very rapid.
2	Woolens	S
3	Iron wrought and cast	A very rapid.
X 4	Sugar refined	A rapid.
X 5	Cotton yarn	A rapid.
O 6	Linens	D not rapid.
7	Coals	S
8	Wrought copper	S
9	Wrought brass	S
10	Tin	S
O 11	Hats (beaver)	D considerable.
12 {	Stockings and glass	S { same amount, and both declining.
X 13	Silks	D great.
14	Salt	D not great.
15	Lead	S
16	Steel	S
17	Fish	D rapid.
18	Felt hats	D considerable.
19	Apparel	S
20	Haberdashery	D considerable.
21	Leather	D not great.
22	Beer	D great.
23	Hops	S
24	Bar iron	A considerable.
25	Train oil	D great.
26	Stationery	D not great.
O 27	Soap	D considerable.
28	Pewter	D rapid.
O 29	Oak bark	S
30	Candles	D not great.
31 {	Various articles	D { the value of these would rank them between No. 2 and 3.

* Those marked X are from materials which this country does not produce; those which have no mark, consequently do not hold quite so high a rank as they

Besides the above, the various articles to the value of about one-seventh of the whole, which are rapidly on the decline, and of 31 articles, there are

advancing	5
stationary	11
declining	15
	—
	31

The total value of articles exported in 1802, that were unknown to us 200 years ago, amounts to near 20 millions, which is equal to the greatest year of our trade previous to 1790, and nearly double the whole of our exports in 1782.

If, then, we add to the 11 millions value of articles entirely new, the amount of exports to places not known, or at least not traded with till the same period, we shall be able to separate the amount of the new branches of trade from those that are of ancient date.

Countries with which we had little commer- cial intercourse above 200 years ago.	New objects of trade as already stated		£.11000000
	Exports to America		6000000
	Ditto to the East Indies		2800000
	Ditto to the West Indies		3000000
	Ditto to Russia		1200000
			£.24000000

Twenty-four millions of our trade is then either to new places, or consists chiefly of articles that have not long been known to the commercial world.

After this particular detail, the eye naturally fixes itself on the exports in general, the result of which is by no means so surprising, when the *new* channels of commerce, and the *new* articles of which it consists, are taken into account.

would do, if the raw materials were British, both on account of the price which that raw material costs ; and farther, because circumstances may deprive us of the means of obtaining it. Thus, for example, the cotton and woollen trades, the latter is indisputably the most valuable and the most certain.

Those marked O, are made partly from British, and partly from foreign materials, but for which this country might, if reduced to necessity, produce the materials necessary.

One thing indeed at first appears surprising is, that while the American war diminished our trade both in exports and imports, and at least made it go on in a retrograde direction, till it fell to what it had been at 50 years before. The last war occasioned a most unexampled and great increase.

One of not the least consoling circumstances attendant on this is, that the balance in our favour has greatly augmented, being, in 1802, apparently 13 millions, though it is, in reality, considerably more.

The French revolution has ruined its possessions in both the Indies. It has likewise disturbed the peace of the continent, and ruined Holland, which, from being once our master in commercial affairs, cannot now support itself, and is no longer to be considered as our rival.

The island of St. Domingo, which was one of the best, and is larger than all our West India possessions, is now estranged from France, probably for ever. Its sugars were cheaper than ours, and in such abundance, that, in the year 1781, the trade to that island alone was very nearly equal to two-thirds of our whole foreign commerce. Is it not then to be wondered that we have got a great augmentation of our West India trade?

It will be seen, that our imports from the conquered islands, which we afterwards gave up, amounted at one time to four millions a year; that is double the whole of our West India produce, previous to the last war.

As commerce does not succeed by accident, nor settle in any place without being solicited earnestly, and treated with the greatest tenderness and care, so it is necessary that, even when brought to the highest degree of success, every care should be taken to preserve it.

As the dangers of mature age are different from those of infancy, so are the dangers of our commerce different from what they were when the Spaniards and Portuguese threatened our destruction, and attacked us at every step. Our dangers then proceeded from a desire to oppress us, on the part of enemies, who wished to prevent us from participating in a lucrative commerce, of which they had long known the sweets. Envy is the incitement to the present enemies of Britain: they wish to divide with us, or, if they cannot divide, to destroy; this is the general aim, but how fallacious will be the attempt, even in the case of success.

Is it for a moment to be supposed, that those who now carry on so great a trade with this country, to which they are led by finding it in every respect suitable and advantageous, are to

change and carry on a similar one with those who might wish for a share of it, if we should fall? No, certainly. Our trade was very nearly gone in 1782, but who gained by that? Did Russia, Denmark, Sweden, participate? Did France or Spain stand in our room? No; it was a moment of general sufferance, and it will be so again, whenever the day shall come that we are compelled to yield to our enemy.

Now that we have taken a view of all that is essentially necessary, relative to our trade in general, we shall go directly to that part of it with Russia and the Baltic; repeating that this is the moment, (when commerce is banished from the southern parts of Europe), to embrace the opportunity of fixing it on those northern countries which seem destined to shine out with vigour, at a time when that portion of the world, once occupied by the greatest warriors and philosophers, is now inhabited by those who are ruled over by a government unfriendly to commerce.

We should therefore particularly turn our attention at home: England is at the summit; Scotland is thriving wonderfully; it is not so with Ireland; the situation of that kingdom is interesting and important in more respects than one. A great deal might be said. That country is now in the state that this was nearly a century ago. It requires the fostering hand of government. Here we want only protection; there they want aid: here the powers of individuals and of the country are fairly developed; there they are only making their appearance.

The exports of Ireland are to those of England nearly in the proportion of one to ten; and the balance, instead of being in their favour, is considerably against that country. Of 639,000 tons of shipping, employed in the trade of that kingdom, one-eighth is foreign, one-eighth Irish, and three-fourths British. Their trade is nearly in the following proportions:

To England	433,000 tons.
Scotland	94,000
Islands	3,000
Continent of Europe	76,000
America and West Indies	60,000

So that if the trade of Ireland were divided into fifty equal parts, there would be for England thirty-two, Scotland eight, the continent of Europe five, and America four.

When we consider that the trade of that country is so small that the balance is unfavourable, and that it is principally carried

on in British vessels, it is impossible not to conclude that there must be some very general cause for so great an effect.

As the exports of linen amount to five-eighths of the whole, provisions, corn, and some trifling articles, the remainder; it is not easy to conceive any thing on a lower footing than the agricultural and manufacturing interest of Ireland; and when the situation of that country is viewed generally, it is impossible not to feel a considerable degree of solicitude for its improvement.

The revenues of Ireland increased from 400,000*l.* which they amounted to at the beginning of last century, to about 1,000,000*l.* previous to the last disturbances, and its national debt was 2,400,000*l.* The expenditure then was not equal to the revenue, except on extraordinary occasions; now the case is totally altered. The public debt bears an interest of more than two millions a year; and most of that comes over to England, where the loans have been made; which, added to the balance of trade against the country, and still farther increased by the money drawn out of it by the proprietors of land who live in this, will form a sum superior to the whole amount of exports.

To attempt making an exact calculation, on such a subject, would be vanity. If the impossibility of it was not evident, from other causes, the difference that probably exists between the rated value of articles exported and the real value would be sufficient to destroy every pretension to accuracy. It so happens in this case, however, that the leading features are so strong, that nothing like accuracy is wanted, in order to come to a conclusion on the subject.

The exports and imports may be supposed to be equally incorrect, as to the stated value; and, in that case, the apparent balance and the true will be nearly the same thing. The following statement of the remittances that it may be necessary to make from Ireland is

Balance against it	£.500,000
Interest of the debt borrowed in England	1,650,000
Spent by absentees	1,350,000
	£.3,500,000

This is probably under the mark, but it is only for a few years that it has existed; and, since it has taken place, the loans made in England have carried over more than sufficient means of paying the balance. When the time shall come, however, that further loans in England are not wanted, the country must

speedily be exhausted, and the remittances for the interest will literally become impracticable.

The exertions of government cannot then be too prompt and vigorous, to prevent the consequences that must naturally result from such an order of things ; and, as it fortunately happens, the field for improvement is very ample ; it will ten-fold repay every shilling laid out in its advancement.

The increase of the linen manufacture, the woollen which once flourished there, and improvements in agriculture, for raising flax, hemp, corn, and cattle, in so abundant and fine a country, together with encouraging the fisheries, are the great things to which we are to look for the means of rescuing the sister kingdom from so dangerous a situation.

The proximity of England will prevent other manufactures from flourishing to any considerable degree ; that is, such manufactures as already are firmly established here ; because, with superior capital, and the means of giving longer credit than they can, we certainly shall maintain the superiority which has been thus gained.

It will be a matter of great importance to deliberate well on the manufactures that should be advantageously established in Ireland ; because, in making an effort, it is very necessary that it be made in such a direction as to give encouragement, in place of blunting the energy of the mind, which an unsuccessful trial is certain to do.

With nations, as with individuals, it is necessary to be industrious, and with them likewise the great and first object is, to have that industry well directed, without which nothing can be attained that is worth the searching after.

The industry and capital of Ireland will find ample scope, without attempting those manufactures for which England is famous. Woollens, cotton, iron, steel, brass, and the great variety of small objects, the manufacturing of which we have got, it will be impossible for the manufacturers of Ireland to establish, so as to come in competition with us in a foreign market ; while, on the other hand, by improving the staples of Ireland, for which the nature of the country is adapted, they will have nothing to fear from what may be attempted on the part of English manufacturers.

As many erroneous representations are circulated abroad regarding the precise situation of the debt and finances of the United Kingdom, the following particulars are given, abstracted from the official accounts laid this year before parliament.

State of the NATIONAL DEBT and FINANCES of the United Kingdom, distinguishing Great Britain from Ireland.

State of the national debt of GREAT BRITAIN, deducting the diminution by stock transferred to the commissioners for the reduction of debt, and on account of land tax redeemed.

Total created	£.582131385	1	3 $\frac{3}{4}$
Redeemed by the commissioners for the reduction of the public debt up to the 1st of February, 1805	89003759	0	0

The public funded debt of Great Britain, as the same stood on the 1st day of February 1805, as laid before the house of commons, was	£.493127726	1	3 $\frac{3}{4}$
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Total of the annual interest and expense of management, including the million for the redemption of the national debt, and other sums appropriated for that purpose is*	24928336	16	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
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Payable annually to the commissioners for reduction of debt	6834114	10	7
	18094222	6	0 $\frac{1}{2}$

Management reared on stock purchased by the commissioners, and on expired annuities	39067	14	8 $\frac{1}{4}$
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Total interest, charge of management, and for the debt unredeemed on the 1st of February, 1805	18055154	11	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
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* Notwithstanding the sinking fund, this sum must be annually paid for the interest of the debt; it has arisen from an annual sum of one million, originally established in 1786, for the reduction of the principal, and some farther contingent sums applied to the same purpose, 1 per cent. on every new loan made since; the whole added together, with the interest of the debt paid off, forms the sinking fund, thus:

The original sum voted	-	-	-	-	1000000	0	0
Added farther per annum	-	-	-	-	200000	0	0
1 per cent. on loans since 1792	-	-	-	-			
Interest on the sum paid off	-	-	-	-			

The unfunded debt, and demands outstanding on the 5th January, 1805, was £.34460521 19 0 $\frac{3}{4}$

The public debt of IRELAND funded in Great Britain, as the same stood on the 5th of January, 1805, was 31562901 0 0

Interest, annuities, and charges of management £.976303 10 1

The total amount of the public funded debt created in Great Britain for account of the EMPEROR OF GERMANY, as the same stood 1st of February, 1805, was

7502633 6 8

Redeemed by the commissioners for reduction of debt £.550228 0 0

Annual interest on unredeemed debt 208572 3 3

Annuities for a term of years 230000 0 0

Charges of management 5716 1 8

Interest on stock bought 16506 16 9

Annuity at 1 per cent. 36693 $\frac{1}{2}$. redeemable with the 1 per cent. or at par.

Total of annual expense 460795 1 8

Of the Rules and Regulations for Importation into Great Britain.

It was intended to have given the rules and regulations for importation and exportation, and some of the most prominent materials relating thereto; but, in the present state of politics, they would be of no utility, as the act of 43 George III. cap. 153, empowers his majesty in council, and in Ireland the lord-lieutenant in council, to grant licenses for the importation or the exportation of merchandise from any port or place belonging to any kingdom or state, not in amity with his majesty, in neutral vessels, or in any ship or manner, during the present war, and for six months after the ratification of a definitive treaty of peace, as may seem meet, in their wisdom, from the nature of the petitioner's application; and a great number of such licenses having already been granted, and others constantly adding, it is impossible, for the present, to introduce rules on the above subjects, on which the reader can with certainty de-

pend; for which reason, the author has preferred the total omission of them, to any insertion which might mislead.

It is, however, of material importance to the commercial world, to state the British warehousing act, or bonding system, an abstract of which is given. The advantages which will result from this act are too obvious to require any comment, particularly in the present state of Europe. It grants facility to the British merchants, and the foreign merchants will now see that they may send their property to this island, either for security or a market, without restraint, or incurring other than ordinary charges;—upon the whole, it is similar to, or upon the footing of a free port, superior to some, since there is no *ad valorem* duty to be paid.

Warehousing Act, 43 Geo. III. Cap. 132.

“ By this act, the undermentioned goods being legally imported, are permitted to be entered, landed, and secured in warehouses at the expense of the importers, under the joint locks of the crown and merchant, as follows, viz.

“ At the Isle of Dogs, in warehouses belonging to the West India dock company without payment of any duties of customs, on the first entry thereof; and on bond to the excise for the duties on such of the articles as are subject thereto, the following articles of West India produce :

Cocoa-nuts,	Indigo,
Coffee,	Mahogany,
Sugar,	Molasses,
Cotton-wool,	Pimento,
Ginger,	Rum.

“ At the London docks, in warehouses belonging to the London dock company, without payment of any duties of customs on the first entry thereof, and on bond to the excise for such articles as are subject thereto; the following articles, not being West India produce, nor imported by the United East India Company :

Rice,	Brandy,
Tobacco,	Geneva, and other spirits.
Wine,	

“ At places to be approved of by the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, on bond being given, with one sufficient

surety to be approved of by the collector and comptroller inwards, in double the amount of the duties payable thereon.

Brimstone,
Cork,
Hemp, undressed,
Iron, in bars,
Kelp,
Mahogany,
Pitch,
Resin,

Staves,
Tallow,
Tar,
Timber,
Tow,
Turpentine,
Wood.

“ In warehouses to be approved of by the commissioners of the customs, on a similar bond.

“ Skins,—viz. Indian deer-skins, half-dressed or shaved, and skins of all other sorts not tanned, tawed, or in any way dressed. Oil; spermaceti, head-matter, train-oil, and all other fish oil, and whale fins of British fishing.

“ In warehouses to be approved by the Lords' commissioners of his majesty's treasury, without the duties on the importation thereof being first paid.

Almonds of all sorts,
Anchovies,
Aniseeds,
Balsam capivi,
Barilla,
Bees wax,
Bristles undressed,
Cantharides,
Carpets, Turkey,
Chip-hats,
Clover-seed,
Cochineal,
Cotton-yarn,
 wool,
Currants,
Elephants'-teeth,
Feathers for beds,
Figs,
Ginseng,
Gum arabic,
 senaga,
Jalap,
Jesuit's bark,

Indigo,
Juniper-berries,
Linen, plain of all sorts,
 except sail-cloth,
Manna,
Mohair-yarn,
Oil of olives,
 palm,
 salid,
 turpentine,
Opium,
Prunes,
Quicksilver,
Raisins of all sorts,
Rhubarb,
Saffron,
Sena,
Silk, raw,
 thrown,
 waste,
Smalts,
Straw-hats.

“ The Lords of the treasury may at any time add to the articles before mentioned, on a list of such articles being published by them in the London Gazette, or by his Majesty's order in council, published three times in the London Gazette; the like *privileges* may be *extended to other ports in* Great Britain, which, from the nature and extent of the trade there carried on, the convenience of the situation, and the security of the revenue by the construction of docks and warehouses, properly adapted for the reception and safe custody of goods, may be deemed entitled thereto.

“ This act contains certain rules and regulations to be observed, which in any doubtful case had better be referred to.”

CHAPTER III.

Definition and general Observations relative to the Resources of Great Britain and Ireland.

WE shall find the best way in beginning to treat of the resources, to explain presently the meaning in which that word is used in this work.

A resource, is meant to imply something that is wanted and can be obtained by our own means; as for example, England has occasion for naval stores, which she must either purchase or produce. So long as a great export business enables us to pay easily for those stores, it is a question whether our industry and capital are not more advantageously employed than in raising them ourselves; but if that should cease, then if we find we can raise them ourselves, it is a resource. The same may be applied to the article of grain, which we can also raise; but on the other hand, suppose we should find that we could not procure raw cotton for our manufactures by purchase, we could then have no resource, as this country will not produce cotton.

By the inquiry then into the resources, it is supposed that our exports alone are not sufficient or will soon not be sufficient to enable us, as hitherto, to procure supplies from abroad; we shall then be obliged to search for resources amongst ourselves.

Corn, hemp, flax, timber, iron, and fish, are the articles of produce, offering a resource to our national industry;* and

* Perhaps the finer sort of wool may be obtained at home instead of being imported from Spain; but as this is not a mere matter of mercantile speculation we shall not enter into that subject.

to explain the matter further, we cannot find any resource in the articles of brandies, wines, cotton, sugar, coffee, or tea; those we must import, or we must do without; that is to say, we must always obtain them as we do now, or in other words, no resource can be derived from them.

The employment of the poor is a resource of another species, it does not procure us what we want to have, but it relieves us from a burthen we wish to avoid; so that though the manner of the thing is different, the effect is the same, and therefore the employment of the poor is a resource. We are now then going upon the supposition that the state of the country will be such, or may become such, that we shall find it necessary, or at least expedient, to employ those resources which the climate, soil, &c. of the nation furnish us with; and in examining this we shall take the articles separately.

It is proper to observe that producing goods ourselves which we have hitherto purchased, has the same effect on national prosperity as if we exported so much more of some other article, and that when we have manufactured and produced as much as we can send abroad, our spare labour and capital must be best employed in producing things that are necessary.

As the business in writing is to be understood, we shall make a comparison that will come home to every person's feelings and understanding. A man who is obliged to live by industry, employs himself either in making things for others, or in working to supply himself with what he wants: in the present state of society, few men labour directly to supply themselves, but rather to produce something to sell or exchange in order to procure what they want. The division of labour renders this more advantageous; but if, through particular circumstances, a man is not able to employ all his time in working for others, to exchange or sell, and still has not all he wants, he must employ the remainder of his time in working to produce directly what he wants.

It is in this manner that people employed in agriculture, employ their spare hours in manufacturing cloth for their own use, and that manufacturers cultivate their own gardens, or perhaps a small piece of ground. Thus the manufacturing is a resource to the farmer, and gardening, or cultivating the ground, is a resource to the manufacturer.

The great expense which a variety of circumstances have entailed on this country, but into the nature of which it is not our business to inquire, make it quite evident that we have occasion to employ every resource, even if our exportation bu-

siness should not fall off; but if it does, then the necessity will be doubly felt.

The articles of produce which we have mentioned are not, however, all precisely of the same nature and tendency with respect to their effect on national prosperity. Thus, for example, when we produce iron, we are employing labour, all of which might be otherwise employed, but it is not so with flax and hemp, for there a species of people, it will be found, may be employed, who could not be so advantageously, if at all, employed on any other material, namely the poor; we therefore derive a greater advantage in that case than in making an equal value of iron.

In raising timber there is some sort of a similar advantage, as ground will produce trees that will not pay for cultivating to produce any other sort of crop; and so far as that is the case, it is a double advantage.

In the fisheries again, there is a compound advantage of another sort, not that the people who fish, are not capable perhaps of gaining as much by some other sort of labour, like those who make iron, but because that occupation raises a sort of men who are much wanted for the safety and protection of this country.

Having entered into this explanation, it remains only to observe that there is no intention to enter into the exploring of the resources, any further than those connected with the northern parts of Europe, in a general mercantile way, combined with the common calculations of profit and loss, and the result of experience: for example, there is no intention to enter into calculations of what the poor, who now produce nothing, can produce; but to maintain that they can for the most part produce enough for their own maintenance, and to shew that want of attention to the subject and bad management are the causes of the great expense, rather than bad laws or regulations. We do not pretend to discuss the merits of different works on this important subject, or to devise new laws, but simply to propose regulations, which will be easily produced, that correspond with the nature of men and things, and which infallibly must produce a good effect, without, however, endeavouring to estimate and determine the amount of the advantage.

Again, in point of the land that will be occupied in raising flax and hemp, we do not need exactly to estimate whether corn may not be rather a more profitable crop to the individual, but as there is plenty of good land to improve, and as there

would be a great national advantage, we would recommend the raising of such crops, even if some small bounty in different shapes than have hitherto been adapted were found necessary. It is in the same way we shall view the fisheries, as they afford a national advantage also.

Three things seem essential to render permanent the property of Britain.

1. To diminish the poor's rates.
2. To grow corn at home sufficient for ourselves.
3. To encourage fisheries, growing of timber, flax, and hemp, so as to have naval stores, without depending on powers which may very likely some day be our enemies.

It is a matter of no small astonishment, that Great Britain, so celebrated for her political wisdom and commercial prudence, which has risen to her power and consequence in the world chiefly by her maritime strength, should grossly have neglected cultivating within herself a great part of her naval stores, the very soul and sinews of her greatness and preservation; particularly after the many salutary admonitions* at an early period, and the attempt at monopoly by foreign powers, the armed neutrality in 1780, and the confederacy of the north in 1800. Great Britain makes herself dependent, as it were, upon foreign nations for those very articles on which her existence depends, and neglects those domestic resources which she might so advantageously carry into effect, not only to a national, but individual benefit.

Hitherto this country has been allured by foreign conquests, commerce, enterprize, and external resources, to a height which, apparently, cannot be extended, if maintained; we ought, therefore, to turn our attention to those resources we have so much neglected at home, in which will be found an inexhaustible source of wealth, strength, and additional security to our general commerce.

The produce of the soil in England has hitherto been nearly confined to raising provisions, out of which has arisen only one considerable staple manufacture, that of wool, when we might have made another, equally extensive, of linens, to have supplied other nations; also iron from the bowels of the earth, and fish from our coasts, and various other branches, which would have augmented the industry and riches of the people.

* Sweden refused to let England have pitch and tar, in 1703, unless it was received in Swedish ships, and at their own price.

It is only a few years since the Board of Agriculture was established in London, with the very limited means allowed by government of 3000*l.* per annum. This trifling sum has already been productive of the greatest advantages to the agriculture of the country, as well in improvements already made, as in pointing out others, that only require the sanction of parliament to be brought into action. The laudable motives recommended to that end I shall state in their own words, as promoting a general view of the inquiries essential for the internal improvements of the kingdom.

“ 1. The riches to be obtained from the surface of the national territory.

“ 2. The mineral or subterraneous treasures of which the country is possessed.

“ 3. The wealth to be derived from its streams, rivers, canals, inland navigations, and the fisheries on its coasts.

“ 4. The means of promoting the improvement of the people in regard to their health, industry, and morals, founded on a statistical survey, a minute and careful inquiry into the actual state of every parochial district in the kingdom, and the circumstances of its inhabitants.”

It has, unfortunately for the country, happened that rooted jealousy has always been kept alive betwixt the commercial, and what is termed the landed interest; each having and acting upon distinct and separate maxims, instead of uniting and co-operating for their reciprocal and common benefit. The commercial interests have entirely looked to a foreign trade, and never cast a moment's reflection on domestic advantages to raise at home, at a less price, those very articles they are sending a large capital abroad to procure, merely because it is a distant possession; nor have the landed interest ever attempted to supplant the foreign produce, nor act in conjunction, in salutary views, with the mercantile; but made, as it were, contracted municipal laws and regulations for the produce of the soil, which have checked its cultivation and extension at home, and thrown us dependent upon foreign nations, serving only to give a stimulus to their commercial interests.

This jealousy has been of great detriment to the country; the landed and commercial interests are so intimately connected and interwoven, that in this nation, of all others, they ought particularly to co-operate with and be reconciled; the latter could maintain its superiority, whilst the former would fall. We have a convincing proof in Flanders; her commerce has fled, and increased in other countries; but her land and her

proprietors are left behind: its reduced value, at the present moment, compared to what it was when her commerce flourished, is as 30 to 9. Upon this subject I cannot express my sentiments more clearly than in a judicious author's own words, published a considerable time ago.

“ As the enlargement of our commerce has thus so vastly
 “ increased the value of our lands, as well as of our general
 “ riches, it is no less certain and self-evident, that any sensible
 “ decrease of our commerce would infallibly sink the value and
 “ rents of lands in a similar proportion. Our cities and manu-
 “ facturing towns, which do now consume such immense quan-
 “ tities of the produce of our lands, being then depopulated,
 “ our farms would thereby be deserted, and perhaps even the
 “ entire rents might in time scarcely be sufficient to support
 “ the numberless poor, then destitute of employment: in which
 “ lamentable situation, it is no exaggeration to assert, that the
 “ landed interest would be more sensibly affected than even the
 “ merchants, traders, and manufacturers themselves; as the
 “ latter could, at the worst, and doubtless would, mostly re-
 “ move to other countries; whilst the former must necessarily
 “ stick to their lands, which then would find but very few pur-
 “ chasers, and at low rates. The bare possibility of so sad a
 “ declension, ought surely to keep us perpetually watchful;
 “ more especially as almost every nation in Europe is at this
 “ time earnestly striving to rival us, either in our staple manu-
 “ factures, our fisheries, our plantations, or our naval power.”

We have already treated of our trade, navigation and manufactures; their rise, present state, and the source of riches they have been to the nation; insomuch as to have arrived apparently at their highest state. It is high time considering the state of our national debt and that of the country, and the frequent attempts of other nations to rival us, that we should turn our attention to those unemployed resources we have at home,—resources of a sure and more permanent nature than any of an external kind, which are precarious, which should be aided by government, wisely managed and properly directed at the outset, to combine and cement the landed and commercial interest in the yoke; for there are but few articles of necessity and of real utility that we cannot raise or manufacture in this country; and whilst our merchants are finding foreign vent, our land-owners and manufacturers will at the same time reap the benefit, as will the country greater power. It, however, entirely rests with the government and the landed interest; for although it might raise in some commercial minds, at the first, a degree of futile

opposition, yet they would soon find their interest in employing their capitals and attention in new objects, attended with greater profit and more security at home than abroad.

In addition to the present produce of our soil in grain, and the additional quantities we might raise to export, we might raise the greatest part of our naval stores, within ourselves, particularly hemp and flax; by growing which, the landed interest of this country alone might avail themselves of employing the poor, and lessen, if not entirely do away the poor's rates; which would afford the durable advantage of increasing the value of the land, and taking off that heavy tax, which they principally pay for supporting the poor.

These three articles of grain, hemp, and flax, we have only mentioned as an instance of what might be done immediately advantageous to the landed interest, without consideration of national advantage; but which, as a primary object, particularly when it enriches the individual; and the remaining resources will be treated of, as we must take into view the promoting and extending our fisheries, which will employ our own capital and people, furnish foreign markets with the fish, the oil supplying the place of the import of tallow, for which upwards of a million and a half is yearly paid to foreigners; iron, we can produce for not only our own consumption but exportation. In short, we shall dwell upon those means of industry we can exercise, and of those articles we can produce amongst ourselves, (distinct from grain) to shew the resources and means we have in store at home, and the landed and commercial interest uniting, that we can still increase in wealth, power, and independence, by our own domestic industry and resources at home, and by our trade abroad.

It was but lately that we escaped the prospect of being driven by force to such an expedient, and it may occur again.

The extent of England and Wales together are 37,334,400 acres, with a population of about nine millions of souls. Scotland and Ireland together are computed to contain the same number of acres as England and Wales. The population of Scotland is 1,600,000, that of Ireland 4,250,000. To the above we may add 470,000 soldiers and sailors.

By this account, the number of acres in Great Britain and Ireland may be reckoned at 75,000,000 and a population of 15,200,000 souls.

Of the capable improvement of the soil of England only, we cannot give a more descriptive account than the one stated in 1794, by the Board of Agriculture, for improving the territory

of the kingdom; instancing one county only, which is the county of Cambridge, not so highly cultivated as that of Warwick.

On different reports given in to the Board, that from the county of Cambridge is by far the most minute; the surveyor having, with great labour, gone from parish to parish; and, in general, having attained sufficient information, in regard to stock, produce, and population. At the conclusion of this report, he recapitulates the increase of rent which may be expected, by improving the cultivation of 319,300 acres in that county only, and states as follows:

Acres.	Description of land.	Increased rent per acre.		£.	s.
		s.	d.		
150000	waste and unimproved fen	10	0	will make	75000 0
132000	open and common field } arable land	8	0		52800 0
19800	inferior pasture	9	7		9487 10
7500	upland common	11	0		4125 0
8000	of fen common	10	0		4000 0
2000	of half yearly meadow } land	8	6		850 0
319300 acres, at an average of 9s. per acre					146262 10

The above increased rent, it is evident, can only arise from increased produce, or decreased expenses, but principally from the former; and it is not unreasonable to say, that the tenant ought to have of increased produce alone, thrice the increased rent; or, in the county of Cambridge, deducting smaller sums, to 438,000*l.* per annum.

To prove that this is a low calculation, it is sufficient to remark, that stating the additional produce of 319,300 acres, at 438,000*l.* is only at the rate of about 1*l.* 7*s.* per acre, which surely cannot be called too high an estimate.

That in order to judge what addition this would make to the national capital, the increased produce ought to be multiplied by thirty; hence, the total value, at thirty years purchase, would amount to 13,140,000*l.*

That in the view of the additional population, the result is equally satisfactory. According to the common calculation, 10*l.* at an average, is sufficient for every human being, men, women, and children included; consequently, 438,000*l.* of ad-

ditional produce would furnish subsistence to 43,800 additional inhabitants. The general result, in regard to Cambridgeshire, is as follows :

Number of acres to be improved, 319000	
Addition of rent, at the average of about 9s. per acre	} £.146,262
Additional produce, at 1 <i>l</i> . 7 <i>s</i> . per acre	
Addition to the national capital, at thirty years purchase of the produce	} 438,000
Probable increase or population, 43800 souls.	
	13,140,000

That for the purpose of calculating the extent to which improvements may be carried in the kingdom at large, it is necessary to state that, according to the computation of the celebrated Dr. Halley, Cambridgeshire is a seventieth part of England and Wales, consequently the above results are to be multiplied by seventy, in order to ascertain the improvable value and population of the southern part of the United Kingdom. The result of that calculation would be as follows :

Number of acres to be improved, 22,350,000	
Addition of rent, at the average of about 9s. per acre	} £.10,057,950
Additional produce, at 1 <i>l</i> . 7 <i>s</i> . per acre	
Addition to the national capital, at thirty years purchase of the produce	} 30,173,850
Probable increase of population, 3,017,385 souls.	
	905,215,500

If there are 22,000,000 acres of land uncultivated in England only, at least eleven of those would prove good land when cultivated ; and that might be done on an average at no expense to government, and with an advance never exceeding 14,000,000*l*. sterling.

The person who attempts to improve waste land should at least have resources of his own to one third the amount of what it will cost to bring it to answer ; and, supposing three years necessary to bring it to pay for the expenses laid out, government might very safely lend the other two thirds, by an issue of exchequer bills, such as were issued in 1793.

Suppose, then, government determined on this measure, and that half a million of acres should be improved every year, then it would be thus:

Year.	Yearly advance.	Sum advanced.
1	500000	500000
2	1000000	1500000
3	1500000	2500000
4	1500000	4000000
5	1500000	5500000
6	1500000	7000000
7	1500000	8500000
8	1500200	10000000
9	1500000	11500000
10	1500000	13000000
11	1000000	14000000
12	500000	14500000

After the tenth year the proprietors would pay back again, so that 14,500,000*l.* would be the greatest sum that would at any time be in advance; and, as the interest would be regularly paid, and the security the most undoubted, no injury could arise to the nation: and, in twenty-two years, there would be eleven millions cultivated; which would give room for an increased population of three millions of people: or, as the taxes of the country are to the acres that are cultivated, in the proportion of 1*l.* 8*s.* to an acre, the whole thus cultivated would bear a taxation equal to fifteen millions, which is a greater revenue annually, than the whole sum lent would be at any one time.

How much advantage would there not be in this to the state, even if the first money were never to be repaid? But, as 4*l.* on an acre remaining on mortgage, would only make 4*s.* interest at five per cent. it would perhaps be better to leave the reimbursement optional with the landholder; in which case, there would be no advance of money by the nation, as it would be the borrower with one hand, and the lender on the other; as, in 1793, was done with exchequer bills, to assist the commerce of the country.

In the improvement of waste land, a point might be obtained, which in those already cultivated, and the property of individuals, is impracticable.

Where the property is once alienated without any condition stipulated, to make any would be contrary to the established right which individuals have over their property; but in the

first alienation of lands, it would be no infringement of any right; and though it would diminish their value, perhaps, a little, it might be a public advantage. But when we consider that it is only a loan, and a loan on good security, it is impossible not to see the advantage; and seeing it once, it will be inexcusable not to make the attempt.

In alienating the common lands, it might be made a regulation that one-fourth, or one-third, should be always in corn, more or less, in proportion to the nature of the soil; and this being an original condition of the tenure, could be no injustice. Some such regulation would be advantageous; for not only does the importation of corn already absorb a great part of the balance of trade that would be in our favour; but if it goes on to increase, there will be no means of finding money to pay for the quantity we shall want; for, since the year 1792, the first cost of grain imported into this country has not cost it less than betwixt thirty and forty millions sterling, and all that in ready money gone out of the country for ever; whilst during that period, had it been applied to the similar purposes now suggested, it would have improved all the waste land, and planted those with timber not susceptible of cultivation throughout the kingdom; and at this time we should not only have become exporters of grain, but the strength and resources of the country would have been formidable; whilst on the other hand, the high price of grain increases the poor's rate, and augments the wages of labour to such a degree, if no new measures are adopted, as will tend greatly to banish manufactures from this country, notwithstanding all the mechanical means of abridging labour that we can devise.

The growing of timber is an object next to the improving of waste lands in importance, and very similar in its nature; it makes lands that are unfit for the common purposes of vegetation, produce; and, like the improvement of land, the returns of it are at a very distant day.

The land fit for planting, and for planting only, is frequently in the possession of men who are not in affluent circumstances that are necessary for sinking a sum of money, even though small, for a term beyond the expectation of human individual existence. In such a case it would be well for the state to advance a certain sum, to be returned with interest at certain periods. It would be a mortgage, not on the soil, but on the crop; and as payment could never be evaded, so as to defraud the lender, so likewise it never could become burthensome to the proprietor of the land who had borrowed it.

It follows from this, that as men of money seek for other employments for it than the improving of land, and men without money can do nothing, government should assist in the business.

The history of the world in general, and particularly that of England, shews, that no nation is ever great or distinguished in any particular way, but in consequence of great care, attention, and exertion. Our navy and our external commerce, which have risen together, have been fostered with very great care; but our internal resources have been left, as it were, to themselves; that is to say, to the care of individuals.

The spirit of commerce is in some measure unfriendly to all those operations, where a great interval of time is wanting before there is a return; and, in particular, if in the interim, the funds are employed in a way that cannot readily and at any time be realised: now the most beneficial operations, and those that produce the most lasting good effects are of this nature.

We have no wish here to enter into an argument with Mr. Adam Smith's principle about commerce in every way finding its level: in the great and general principle we do agree; but there are still some particular considerations; as, for instance, it may find its level at a very late period, previous to which much evil may arise; or it may find its level by producing some very bad effect: for Mr. Smith does not tell us that in every case it will find its level without doing mischief. He only tells us it will find its level. It was thus that Italy found its level in population, and became a desert, in comparison to what it had been, owing to the neglect of agriculture in its grandeur and prosperity.

With respect to the fisheries, the cultivation of hemp and flax, and the employment of the poor, the general principles are well enough understood. There the object is not what is to be done, but to point out how it is to be. This, therefore, we must refer to the particular chapters, in which each is treated separately; observing, in the gross, that if these subjects are attended to, our imports from foreign countries will be greatly diminished, and our capacity to bear the burthens laid upon us greatly increased; so that we shall be enabled to combat the open hostilities of our professed enemies, and to avert the bad consequences that may arise from the ill founded jealousies of those from whom we at present draw many articles necessary for the support of our independence.

Warmly as an individual may think of plans which he has formed, it ill becomes him to propose them in a positive, dictatorial style, as if they were infallible; but in this case it is fair to say, that the object is great, that it is desirable; it might even perhaps be said necessary; and that there can at least be no objection to trying the experiment; as it has evidently been demonstrated that the habits and manners of the people will never accomplish it, without the assistance of government.

CHAPTER IV.

Of the Corn Trade.

THERE is no object more intimately connected with the prosperity of a country than the sustenance of the people; and corn is the chief article, not only in itself, but is that which by its price regulates all others.

Sudden rises in the price of provisions have a very hurtful effect on a manufacturing country, as they augment the wages of labour, which has a tendency to banish manufactures from a country altogether.

As few subjects are more essential, so there are scarcely any more difficult to regulate, on account of the number of interests that are to be conciliated.

Corn is the only great, essential article of subsistence that admits of becoming a general object of commerce. Butcher's meat, in the aggregate, is an article of importance, not very much inferior; but then it is very different in its nature from corn. Particular circumstances of detail, and those of a very intricate and minute sort, are required in dealing in cattle. Skill is the first thing, and every single beast must be examined; whereas 20 or 100,000 sacks of wheat may be purchased at once, and may either be kept or sold, in whole or in part, without any detail or difficulty.

As for other articles of subsistence, they are still of less importance; insomuch, that those two alone are equal in value and amount to all the others that are necessary to the suste-

nance of man ; not, however, taking into account a number of small articles of consumption, such as garden stuffs, and fruits of various sorts, which are produced on particular spots, and being of a nature not to bear preserving, are consumed nearly at the same time and place where they were produced, and therefore only make a trafficking detail, not upon the great scale.

As, excepting fish, nearly all the eatables used by man, are the produce of land, of which, corn not only is the principal, but it has all the qualities necessary for constituting it an article of commerce on the great scale, it therefore regulates the rent of land, the wages of labour, and the prices of other sorts of provisions.

To go completely into the corn trade, would require a volume, but this like most other subjects, has been treated on at too great length, and the regulations adopted have been complicated ; they ought to have been more simple, for practicability (for one thing) is necessary for every plan of regulation, and what is complicated is seldom very practicable, or if executed, it is but in an imperfect way.

In the regulation of so great a business it is not necessary to attempt at remedying every evil, but rather to put the matter upon such a footing as that there will be a natural tendency for things to go nearly right ; to aim at more is useless ; in every thing human, there is error and imperfection ; as in all machines there is friction, and as the friction increases with the weight and power, so will the imperfections of human institutions increase with their importance.

As the subject relative to corn has been treated of by many of the most eminent men, and has been investigated by the legislature, and analyzed in every shape, we shall simply enter into a few remarks arising from commercial notions, more immediately connected with the nature of the work, and make such observations on the quarters we have been treating, that some important information may be derived by the country, in its present circumstances.

As seasons are precarious, even if our cultivation was extended to the utmost of which it is capable in this country, it is a certain fact, admitted by all, that we are not certain of having every year produced adequate to the consumption ; and it is no less a fact, that even a good year's crop is now scarcely sufficient, and a bad one compels us to make very considerable importations. This is remarkably evident within the last ten years.

The causes to which this may be attributed are so many and various, that neither inclination nor space will allow us to go into them; but in order that they may, by more able heads, receive suggestions to be improved upon for the general welfare of the country, we will give some details.

So far as regards the grain trade of Europe, and the Baltic being deemed its granary, we shall more immediately confine ourselves to it. It was from thence Britain used to receive her supplies long before the discovery of America. In 1437, King Henry sent to the King of Denmark to assist him with supplies of grain; in a few years after it began to find its way in such abundance, that King Edward IV. prohibited the importation when the price in England was under six shillings and eight pence per quarter for wheat, four shillings for rye, and three shillings per quarter for barley.

The production of grain in Poland must have been carried to a very great extent at an early period: in the year 1618 that kingdom sent down no less than 1,203,268 quarters of all sorts of grain to Dantzic, from which city in that year 1,367,784 quarters was exported, above a million of quarters of which was rye; the price which it sold in that year at Dantzic was from four shillings and five pence to four shillings and nine pence per quarter, according to the observations made when treating of the corn trade of that city. In the same year the market price of wheat at Windsor was forty-six shillings and eight pence per quarter, the year previous it is found two shillings per quarter higher, and in 1619 thirty-five shillings and four pence per quarter; by these circumstances we may easily conceive the early importance of the corn trade in the Baltic; laying so conveniently to Holland, it was soon monopolized by the merchants of that country, which monopoly it preserved from the earliest period till the commencement of the last war, when England began to import so considerably.

The partition of Poland first, and the French revolution next, have not tended more to give a new face to the corn trade than to commerce in general, which we shall endeavour to shew, because, eventually, if not at present, both will affect the interests of this country, unless it seize the present opportunity which circumstances have thrown in its way.

In consequence of the partition of Poland, the nobles and landed proprietors turned their attention and exertions to agriculture, when they had no longer any share in the government of the country. The wheat which formerly was sent down from Poland, is now so far superior to what it was from the same

quarter ten years ago, that it obtains from one-sixth to a quarter more in price than formerly; it is not only that they are improving their system of agriculture, but breaking up fresh lands, which in the Ukraine are rich and luxuriant, centrally situated betwixt the Baltic and the Black sea; they have the choice of those two markets owing to the great attention paid by the Russia government to the trade of the latter sea, and the port of Odessa in particular.

The part of Poland belonging to Austria, and part of the possessions of that empire have the same advantages: Spain can always be supplied by both channels, particularly the latter, being placed betwixt the two outlets, so that we must in times of peace lose a part of that carrying trade; Russia, not only by the Black sea, but by the Baltic, as well as the White or North sea, from the great natural facilities in that immense empire by rivers, now promoted by canals already formed, and others in execution, will be the means of pouring immense stocks of grain into the western markets; now that the spirit of agriculture has got into the north. It is not only in the division of Poland, which is possessed by Russia, Austria, and Prussia, that agriculture is improving and extending, but throughout their respective dominions; entirely stimulated by the want and demand from England for the last ten or twelve years in particular.

Of Mecklenburg we have already given a full statement: we find from an unprofitable soil and forest, it has become well cultivated and productive, and consequently rich, within a short period; an example to this and all other nations.

It is at the expense of Britain that the corn countries of the continent have been so richly benefited.

From being great exporters, which we were from 1688 to 1765 we directly turn importers; from the year 1771 to 1790, both years inclusive, according to Mr. Catherwood's table the balance has been against us in that period £.5901969 paid for grain and bounties.

Such immense importations, in quantity and value, originating from want and consequent high prices, excited the attention of the legislature, which has, with great solicitude, endeavoured to remedy the evil, by investigating, with indefatigable exertions, the primary cause. The report of the committee of the house of commons cannot be more emphatically expressed than in their own words. "Your committee recommend the adoption of measures calculated to promote the interests of the

grower, conceiving that a due encouragement to agriculture is the best and most effectual mode of ensuring to the consumer an adequate and regular supply, at a reasonable rate, as well as of obviating those frequent fluctuations in price so injurious both to the grower and the public; and also in future to secure to this country, as far as possible, the advantage of such enormous sums, as your committee find, have exceeded thirty millions in the last thirteen years, which sums, employed in the purchase of corn abroad, cannot fail to have operated as a bounty upon the agriculture of foreign countries, to the detriment of our own; whereas it appears by the corn returns, that in the course of years, when the regulations were most favourable to the growers, and when the least check was put upon the trade, the export of corn from this kingdom, for more than sixty years in succession, produced annually six or seven hundred thousand pounds, leaving besides, at a regular and moderate price, an ample sufficiency for the home consumption."

Paying due respect to the committee, it is much to be feared, reckoning the actual first cost, (principally drawn for at an unfavourable exchange) and all the charges, and adding the bounties, that that sum is considerably below what it has cost the country during that period. The bounties paid in Great Britain on the importation of grain, &c. amounted, in the undermentioned years, to

1796	.	.	.	£. 599834
1800	.	.	.	44836
1801	.	.	.	1420355
1802	.	.	.	715323
1803	.	.	.	43977

Which unquestionably operated as a bounty to the foreigner, they had no other market than Britain, where they could get so high a price, or be so well paid.

The evil does not only consist in the ready money the nation has actually paid, but the capital with which it has furnished the foreigners to improve their lands, and enable them to enter into competition with us in other markets, if we should be fortunate enough in future to become exporters; but the corn at these periods has been brought to our markets, chiefly in foreign shipping, whilst our own vessels have been laid up; this is a loss to that part of our national capital; this is no inconsiderable

erable sum, of which we may be judged by the following estimate of the importation, during that period, reduced into tons.

Years	1791	.	.	Tons	257142
	1792	.	.	.	212860
	1793	.	.	.	273629
	1794	.	.	.	254956
	1795	.	.	.	160193
	1796	.	.	.	379208
	1797	.	.	.	183627
	1798	.	.	.	244709
	1799	.	.	.	193890
	1800	.	.	.	422814
	1801	.	.	.	467932
	1802	.	.	.	249684
	1803	.	.	.	169589

So great were our wants, that we were glad to get the grain in any shipping, navigated in any manner, and paying heavy freights, whilst our own had but a very limited share of this great traffic.

To sum up the whole, or to give a true estimate of the heavy loss to the nation during this period, might be deemed a wanton exaggeration. On comparing the first table with the report of the committee, supposing it is the medium betwixt the two, less than half the sum, in half the time of that importation of grain has cost the country, would have brought all the waste lands in the kingdom susceptible of cultivation into a proper state; by which, as we have already shewn, we should not only have kept so much money at home, but have precluded a rivalry in other nations, by those we have furnished with capital to cope with us in future, although we have superior advantages by our own produce and manufactures. Unfortunately, we have too many refinements and restrictions in the corn trade of this country, which is more shackled than in some other. Doctor Adam Smith observes, very justly, that "the laws concerning corn may every where be compared to the laws concerning religion; the people feel themselves so much interested in what relates to their subsistence in this life, or to their happiness in a life to come, that government must yield to their prejudices, and in order to preserve the public tranquility, establish that system which they approve of."

When treating, in the previous chapter, of what was implied in speaking of the resources of the country, we have pointed

out the only probable means to be applied at home. If the population of England and Wales, at the revolution, was stated at 7380000; it has been found by the enumeration of 1801 to be 9330000; and that, as Mr. Chalmer says, it was stated to the house of commons in 1797, that the acts of inclosure and extent of acres were,

In Queen Anne's reign	2 acts	1439 acres.
King George I.	16	17660
George II.	226	318778
George III.	1532	2804197
		3142074 acres.

The same gentleman estimates that the total consumption of the present population, is

For bread corn	9330000 quarters.
Corn made into drink	4665000
Corn for cattle, poultry, &c.	4665000
The total of home consumption	18660000

If then the consumption of the nation be upon the average at two Winchester quarters per head, and supposing our crop to be deficient in a moderate degree, the price will be immediately influenced. When an alarm is spread of a deficiency of the crop as it generally is, in round numbers, of one-half, one-third, or a quarter; it is even, when still less, a serious affliction to the nation, notwithstanding the higher price will diminish the consumption; and therefore we should set about measures to put us above being in want, even in an ordinary year, so that the surplus of a bountiful year should, by some means be preserved, to make up the defect of a bad one, otherwise most serious consequences must arise. The greatest importation into this country was in 1801; in that year we imported into Great Britain 2027515 quarters of grain, 1125704 hundred weight of meal, and 310608 cwt. of rice, still the country was greatly distressed for want of bread, and very high prices were paid; and that importation was not more than one-sixth of the consumption.

From America we received considerable supplies: it is that country which alone can, at present, enter into competition with the Baltic.

France, in the year 1764, first allowed exportation of grain, but her agriculture has not sufficiently improved to be brought into question; the acquisition of Flanders will not at all times provide that country with grain, that is the whole of the French territory; of this we had an instance in 1801 and 1802.

According to the materials, and the best information which could be obtained, the exportation of grain from the Baltic, in the year 1801, appears to have been only 2012254 quarters, whilst, in the year 1802, it was 2594832 to all parts; why it should be greater in the latter than the former year may be accounted for by the high prices grain sold for in the Baltic, the demand for rye from Holland for the distilleries, and the great purchases of corn made in the interior, which would have gone down by the Black sea, if the winter had not favoured the carriage on those rivers falling down to the Baltic. Those conveyances and channels, in future, (owing to the general improvement in the country), will be still more frequented.

As we have already pointed out by what means we may increase our own domestic growth, and regain the exportation, there are some very important considerations to be taken into question, in which our former settlements will be confirmed, relative to the co-operation of the landed and commercial interest. If in this point they cannot be separated, if the welfare of the country is to be considered in every point of view, we have already partly prepared the mind for the absolute necessity of devising some effectual means, not only to produce a sufficient stock for our own consumption, but to create an exportation trade; therefore the following suggestions may be useful to those where power and talents can be called forth to accomplish an object of such national importance, when so fit an opportunity presents itself. Reasons have been assigned of the effects which Poland has produced by its partition. We must next advert to the French revolution, and the effects it likewise has produced on the corn trade.

The south shores of the Baltic sea were properly, till 1794, the granaries of Holland; so unfettered was the corn trade, even in that country, that it was found the magazine of the world, and those nations frequently which exported to Holland had it back again at a higher price. The Dutch were invariably purchasers of grain in the Baltic markets; before winter set in, they imported from thence, in their own ships chiefly, and others to Holland, and there it was stored up for a market, either for Spain, Portugal, France, or this country, being ever ready for any market; and, if there was any sudden demand in

other quarters, or sales to be made, then their own ships were ready to transport it. In the midst of dearth or famine, Holland had always a plentiful supply of grain for her own consumption, and * some to sell to other nations, although within her own territory, she does not produce sufficient for herself. Her capital and the freedom of her trade gave Holland these superior advantages; she bought with ready money, was the carrier of the cargo, and sold it on credit; the buyer and the seller always looked to Holland. After the subjugation of that country, Hamburg attempted it a little, as will be seen by a table of the importation and exportation, when treating of that city; but, during the blockade, it can be no longer continued. That trade from the Baltic is now driven away, by the French, and no where can it be so central or secure as in Britain. Nature, or rather Providence, has formed this island an impregnable emporium, where all the world, but particularly those who are driven from the trade of Holland and Hamburg, would readily fly, if we would give them a courteous reception. The world is sensible of our security, as they are convinced of our being free; and where there is security and freedom, commerce will always flourish. Situated as we are, betwixt the Baltic and the southern parts of Europe, and likewise for the trade between Europe and America, Britain should become the magazine of the universe.

It will then be the wisest and soundest policy to make Britain an entrepôt for grain; her own interest demands it; and we trust, to convince the landed interest that our suggestions are not speculative, but that they arise from observation and experience.

The effect of the French revolution, with respect to the corn trade, in driving it from Holland, should be the introducing it into this country; this may prudently be done, in a manner not to hinder our own production, or prevent its exportation, but to promote both: for the foreigners finding that we are no longer such great importers as formerly, will, in the end, produce less grain; and, by being producers ourselves, instead of consumers, we shall cut the sinews of competition against us; so that we shall be enabled to regulate the corn trade of Europe.

Let all foreign grain be allowed importation at all times into Great Britain, under the king's lock, upon the principle of an

* It is said that even in the end of the 15th century, that Holland had generally 700,000 to 1,000,000 quarters of foreign grain in store for a market.

entrepôt; there let it lay the pleasure of the owner for a market. We are better situated for it than Holland; if any demand should be made from the southern markets, our own ships can be got out from our ports at all seasons of the year, which is not the case in Holland. On this account, in addition to the important one already stated, foreigners will always prefer this country.

From foreign grain being stored in this manner, would arise a certain advantage to the country. If, whilst our waste lands are getting into cultivation, any failure of our crops should take place, the stock on hand might be brought into the market by the regulations of the present act. Monopoly, which is so much cried down, would not exist in the face of a large unknown stock; and if the price advanced, under these circumstances, it would rise from an actual deficiency in the country, to supply which we should then always have a stock in store; for want of such stock, prices frequently rapidly advance here, and the advance is anticipated abroad; so that it costs us enormous prices unnecessarily created.

We speak from fact and our own knowledge, that, was such a principle adopted, the corn dealers in the north of Europe, and those who have long been in the trade in other quarters, would cheerfully avail themselves of it. Although corn may at present be landed under the king's lock, it is subject to a small duty, to an inconvenience and restraint, that those in a foreign country will not subject themselves to; and the consequent heavy expenses and loss in measure, when stored, for want of proper granaries; but, in case of absolute necessity, the foreign corn merchants, particularly in the Baltic, have frequently large supplies coming down from the interior, when they have an old large stock on hand, they wish to divide it, a part at home, and the other abroad, ready for a market; and what place is so eligibly situated as England? Thus we should have a great foreign capital in grain laying here: if our wants should require their stocks, that part of the capital which our corn merchants at present supply, would come into circulation for other purposes.

It would be too great an inducement, and certainly the cause of a more considerable stock coming to this country, if the native ships, from whence the corn grew, were to be the carriers to England; and, in time of peace, or to countries in amity with this, it ought to be exported in British shipping. Foreigners complain, and perhaps with some reason, of our heavy expenses; and above all, the great loss of measure in

grain; when warehoused in London particularly, they complain to the merchant, the merchant to the factor, and he to the occupier of the granaries under whose care it has been promiscuously housed.—The system of the granaries at Dantzic, which we have described, is in some measure worthy of imitation. To obviate these complaints, as we have a spirit in the nation for making docks, and erecting buildings, encouraged by the warehousing or bonding act; similar establishments might be made in this country, for grain, and were even intended so early as 1623, when King James issued a proclamation, upon deliberate advice with the privy council, to allow the merchants to erect magazines in the ports of London, Dover, Portsmouth, Southampton, Bristol, Exeter, Plymouth, Ipswich, Lynn, Yarmouth, Hull, Newcastle, Chester, Liverpool and Haverfordwest, besides the ports, all the shire towns of the realm;* some restrictions, it is true, were imposed in duties and limitation of price in this country; otherwise the principle was good, and admitted a free importation and exportation of foreign grain at all times; but, when our own wants raised the price, to bring it out for home consumption.

It is not only from the Baltic that considerable supplies of grain would be sent to such an entrepôt, but from America; their conscious security of the country, although they were seeking for markets, would always induce them, as they now often do, to touch at Cork or Falmouth, to learn the state of the European markets, or call for orders. Great numbers of the American merchants, and they are mostly bold and enterprising, would at once send their produce here for a market, and take our manufactures in return; and the trade to America, we have already shown, is nearly as much in our favour as the Baltic is against us.

The spirit of agriculture is widely extending in America; the lands there are much more reasonable than in any part of Europe; notwithstanding the high rate of labour, they will be competitors with the Baltic produce in the European markets.

It will be demanded by the landed interest, (whose intention has been to exclude a single bushel of foreign corn from being brought into this country), why we should facilitate the agriculture of foreigners, by making this island an entrepot, that they might take the first advantage of any market?

* As barracks are already erected, they might, at a small expense, when not occupied, be appropriated to this purpose, near the great towns where they are principally placed.

This is answered by suffering foreign corn to be landed and exported here, without any restriction, in proper warehouses, in the manner already stated; but that it should not be sold for home consumption, except under the restrictions of the present or some more judicious act; it would check monopoly and speculation; it would save bounties, and, in years of scarcity, we should have a stock; it would not have the effect which has been advanced, of deterring the farmer from extending his production of grain, because the bounty, by making a sure market, on the one hand, and the protecting price on the other, would always keep him free from alarm. Besides, in this country, if the circulation of our native grain was perfectly free and unrestrained, throughout both islands, it would always give life to the sale of our grain, by doing away the restrictions of one part of the United Kingdom with the other, as we have done one district from another. The conveying the surplus of grain in our shipping, the produce of one district to another that was deficient, or the seat of manufactures, would encourage the coasting trade, consequently be a partial nursery for seamen, at a time the foreign grain might be laying in the warehouses; and if we should have defective crops, we could constantly be supplied by foreign grain. The free circulation of our own grain, in Ireland, would discourage the consumption of foreign, till absolutely necessary; and then we have it at hand to check an inordinate foreign importation to glut our markets and oppress the farmer, the foreign stock on hand would in some measure tend to prevent it; thus, at any event, by having the command of the carrying trade, as the Dutch formerly had, we should be enabled to have the controul of foreign markets, and be continually looked up to by the producer on one hand, and the consumer on the other; likewise we should find a vent, and secure a market for our native surplus, in years of plenty; in years of bad crops we should have a supply at hand: by these means the price in this country would always be kept free from those great fluctuations we have lately experienced in our corn-market.

Exclusive of the great advantage of such a system, in encouraging our own growth, some years must in the course of nature be defective.* If we encourage the carrying trade, we shall always avoid the risk of great want; this opinion is confirmed by Dr. A. Smith, who says,

* We have already observed, that in Sweden they count only on two or three good crops in ten years, three or four middling, and the remainder almost defective.

“The trade of the merchant carrier of foreign corn, in order to export it again, contributes to the plentiful supply of the home market. It is not indeed the direct purpose of his trade to sell his corn there, but he will generally be willing to do so, and even for a good deal less money than he might expect in a foreign market, because he saves, in this manner, the expense of loading and unloading, of freight, and insurance. The inhabitants of the country, which, by means of the carrying trade, becomes the magazine and storehouse for the supply of other countries, can very seldom be in want themselves.”

The reasons assigned, being confirmed by such high authority, will, it is hoped, claim the attention of government; it is an object worthy of consideration, when, as we have stated, the produce in the Baltic, (owing to the attention and great improvement in the countries south of that sea), will annually augment. America too will considerably increase and extend this branch of her trade; but we leave the supplies from that country out of question. We shall find that the aggregate of the exportation of corn from the Baltic alone, in ordinary years, amounts to about two millions sterling; but, in extraordinary years of great demand, and consequently high prices, it has been equal to eight millions sterling in the first cost.

It has been stated, and very justly, that without granting a bounty to encourage the exportation of our own growth, we cannot enter into foreign markets in competition with other countries. The system of bounties has been generally condemned as impolitic; the gradual increase of price in this country has by degrees certainly been the means of raising the prices above what the foreigners raise grain. This circumstance renders the system of bounties on importation more absurd than it otherwise would be, for the ordinary price of grain here is such as to command a supply. Bread is in general twice the price in London that it is in Paris; and indeed in the great dearth there, of 1789 and 1790, bread only rose to what it is in London on ordinary occasions, that is, to eight pence for the quartern loaf; in 1800, bread, in London, rose to six times its ordinary price in Paris, or nearly three times its highest price, yet we still paid a bounty for importation!!! Nothing could have admitted of such measures, but the absolute dread of a famine.

The lowest importation price in England is sufficient to command a supply, therefore there should never be a bounty in this nation, though perhaps there may be policy in having it in other nations to prevent famine, the ordinary prices being so low.

This is a very important point indeed, and one which alone demands the most serious consideration of the legislature. We have already, when treating of different countries, had in view their respective produce and traffic in corn, to shew their state to our readers in England. We have in this chapter stated the attention and extension they are all giving to the production of grain: these, and a few other remarks are of no small importance, we therefore trust they may be useful to those who have the means to benefit by them.

In taking into consideration the observation which has been made, that we cannot enter into competition in foreign markets, is certainly at present a fact; in order to shew which, from what has been said, we will state,

That, even at Archangel, the average price of wheat has been, for the last fifteen years, only about twenty-six shillings per quarter; some years it has been about twenty shillings per quarter, but then its quality is very inferior. In other parts of Russia it has been much the same in price, but of better quality, although those supplies were rather higher by way of the Baltic ports. At Dantzic, the Poles reckon that they cannot bring down their wheat to pay them, unless they obtain about thirty-two shillings and six pence per quarter, and nineteen shillings per quarter for rye; and the quality of wheat is such, that the better sorts sell nearly as high in our markets as our own better sorts of wheat. In Mecklenburg they look to a higher rate, on account of its being the nearest market in the Baltic, more in the midst of population, and of course greater consumption and demand at all times from its own neighbourhood.

If then we contrast those prices, as being those at which they can afford to raise corn, and make a suitable profit, let us see what great encouragement they have had from us; this will appear by the average prices of England and Wales for the following years:

Years.	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
1792	42	11	30	8	26	9	17	10
1793	48	11	35	11	31	9	21	3
1794	51	8	37	9	32	10	22	0
1795	74	2	48	5	37	8	24	9
1796	77	1	47	0	35	7	21	9
1797	53	1	31	11	27	9	16	9
1798	50	3	30	11	29	1	19	10
1799	67	6	43	9	36	0	27	7
1800	113	7	76	11	60	0	39	10
1801	118	3	79	9	67	9	36	6
1802	67	5	43	3	33	1	20	7
1803	56	6	36	11	24	10	21	3

This shews the profit the foreigners have made by us, at the same time our wants, and the great national loss we have sustained, for want of a more extended produce of grain, which will surely shew the necessity of immediately setting about the cultivation of waste lands, when we have paid such large sums, that the average price has been so greatly beyond what we ever can raise grain.

Unless we cultivate our waste lands, and devise some means within ourselves to provide subsistence adequate to the population, (as a judicious author has said), the population must come down to the subsistence.

If abroad they look upon those prices here stated as paying them, and affording a suitable profit, we may easily judge, from the quantities this country has imported from thence, and the high price we have paid, how much better not only the state of the people, but the countries must be, and how far we have furnished them with means to cope against us, whilst the higher rents of land in this country, necessarily require a bounty to be granted on that we export, (if we mean to export), even in years of plenty.

When the price of grain shall be, as it ought throughout the kingdom, on an average, forty-eight shillings per quarter, it may be exported; but supposing a bounty of five shillings per quarter is allowed, still we can never enter into competition with the northern nations, excepting on any sudden emergency, or any extraordinary demand; at a time when their navigation is shut by the season; when they will raise their prices in proportion with ours, even then the quantity we could spare would not be any object to this country; for, so soon as ever the idea of exportation was afloat, the prices would rise again too high; so that from the price we have got corn in this country, compared to what they can produce it in the Baltic and America, we cannot become exporters, except casually; unless some effectual means are adopted very soon to encourage our own growth, and to make this island an entrepot, to get the carrying trade, and by that means the commerce of the whole corn trade; so that if our own produce should at any time, by great and sudden exertion, be exported beyond what the country could spare, or our crops prove deficient, we have always the chance of a foreign stock at home to resort to, at moderate prices, till our own succeeding crops put us beyond want or apprehension.

To sum up the whole, the improvement of waste lands, the abolition of bounties, and making this an entrepot of grain, are

the means by which we may obtain the object that is so desirable, and by which we can in future, judging by the past, on the average of thirteen years, save above three millions and a half sterling per annum.

To consider the corn business in a mercantile and general way, without either entering into the details of interior regulations, or examining those general principles which forbid the legislature to interfere in the regulation of trade as much as possible, is our business in this work; and to apply what we have to say to the British islands, without considering whether in other places and other circumstances, a different policy may not be necessary.

The result of what we have examined, then, is

- 1st. That as Britain does not grow corn enough for itself, a bounty on exports is totally absurd, for that, if it could produce export, it would be doing us a real injury, but the fact is, that it can never operate for any length of time, as the very idea of it would raise the corn above the price allowed.
- 2d. That a bounty on importation is useless and a dead loss to the nation, our prices here being always so much higher than those of other countries that it will command a supply without any bounty.
- 3d. That the proper regulation of bounties is not, however, sufficient; we must find means of growing enough for our own supply, and this is only to be done by our improving the waste lands.
- 4th. That, as in all our corn traffic with other nations, we sell cheap, and buy dear, it is ruinous on every principle.
- 5th. That as the quantity of corn consumed in the nation exceeds in value the whole of our exports, on an average price, a very small deficiency will do more than consume that balance of trade that has for more than a century been in our favour; that is to say, in precise and plain terms, that if the crops of Britain and Ireland continue insufficient, and we have recourse to a foreign market for $\frac{1}{12}$ th only of the corn wanting, it will turn the balance of trade against us.
- 6th. That the same operation of improving the waste lands would diminish the poor's rate and increase the revenues of the country.
- 7th. That making this country an entrepot of grain, for which the present circumstances are favourable, would tend to keep

the price steady, it would be an advantage both to the landlord and the farmer, as well as very conducive to the prosperity of the country.

And lastly, That the high price of grain, which regulates that of all other provisions, tends to undermine and destroy the manufacturing wealth and prosperity of this kingdom ; and, therefore, that a remedy to its alarming augmentation cannot be too soon nor too eagerly sought after.

CHAPTER V.

Of the Fisheries, Oil, and Tallow.

IN every country where the coasts lay favourably for the fisheries, their encouragement has been found to be an object of high importance; it increases the quantity of food, it brings up a hardy race of people, and it is a great source of wealth, by supplying such nations as have not themselves the means of catching fish.

To Britain, which is an island circumscribed in extent, and therefore limited in point of subsistence and population (which depends on the means of subsistence) the encouragement of fisheries is a peculiar object of importance, and ought to be one of particular solicitude. Its defence too, in time of war, depending on its naval power, increases the importance of that source of wealth; and therefore, in more views than one, the fisheries are fit objects for public bounties.

Dr. Adam Smith, whose views on subjects of political economy have been allowed to be in general good; and who, if in error in any leading principle, it is in wishing governments to interfere as little as possible in trade and commerce, allows that fisheries are an exception, that their encouragement is a national benefit, and therefore their extension ought to be an object for bounties and encouragement, at the expense of the public.

Many great states, and wealthy people, have owed their first rise entirely to fisheries. Marseilles, the city that has continued to prosper longer than any other in Europe, first rose by fisheries, was maintained by them, and, by commerce, as a respectable independent state, and ally of the Romans; even during the dark ages it maintained itself in a state of independence; and, in the twelfth century, was a powerful and free republic.* It may be said to have been independent and free for more than two thousand years; and since it has become a part of France, it still preserves its wealth and opulence.

Venice owed its first greatness to the fisheries; Flanders and Holland, in modern times, did the same; and the greatest victory the Dutch ever obtained; their greatest step towards advancement in wealth was, when they discovered a better method of curing herrings than what was produced by their Flemish neighbours; and, from that moment, Holland rose rapidly, and Flanders began to fall.

If, at any other time, the fisheries were of importance to England, they must be doubly so now, when Holland is deprived of her great resource; her energy and incitement to industry having fled with liberty, and the security of property.

We have just now an opportunity of getting the greatest part of the Dutch trade in fishing, as we have got it in nearly every thing else; and the fishing trade is the most important to get, though not the most easily obtained.

The great floating capitals of merchants, which are ready to occupy themselves on any branch of trade that seems advantageous, and is merely moveable, (that is to say, where to buy, sell, or carry, is all the business), very quickly occupy and seize on every new channel; but it is not so with fishing; merchants will, indeed, vest their capital in purchases of fish that are cured, or of oil, or other produce arising from fisheries; but they will not invest their capitals either in fishing or curing, and unless they are caught and cured ready, they cannot be purchased.

But without capital, fisheries cannot be extended suddenly, and we, at this time in particular, require to make a great and a sudden effort; but the manner of making it is the question.

* That city was, indeed, for a while, in the hands of the Genoese, having been in those disorderly times given up by the count of Thoulouse; but it soon again became independent and free.

Joint stock companies, for the purpose of fishing, have seldom answered, and they never can answer any great purpose; neither will any great, complicated, or difficult plan, succeed; it must be something simple, and that will facilitate and encourage the labour of the poor individual fisherman.

It is in the mode of doing this to the most advantage that we are to inquire; but, before we inquire into particular circumstances, let us take a view of the general nature of the case.

In the first place, unless fish can be cured at a reasonable price, the catching them will be to little purpose. The price of salt is the thing that renders that easy or difficult.

Unless the poor fishermen can have boats and other implements, they cannot employ their industry, and these are expensive tools. Manufactures never flourished in this or in any country till a mode has been found out, of the rich furnishing expensive tools to the poor.

In furnishing the means to pay for these tools, some certain mode of repayment or security was expected or devised.

With immoveable property this matter is simple and easy; but with property that is liable to be lost, destroyed, or carried away, there are difficulties in the nature of the thing, it is then for the intelligence of man to remove or overcome the difficulties.

A government finds it impracticable to enter into the details necessary to aid individuals, where there are risks and hazards to run, and where there is room not only for mismanagement, but for fraud, both on the part of the individuals to be assisted, and the agents employed to give the assistance.

In this case, an intermediate person should be employed, who should secure the government from risk, and find, in his vigilance in looking after the property, a reward for his trouble.

All the attempts hitherto made to aid and increase our fisheries, have been made upon a wrong principle; and one which, from its nature, could not succeed. They ought not to discourage us, or lead to the conclusion, that aid cannot effectually and advantageously be given: past experience ought not to discourage us, unless we find that the difficulties arise from the nature of things, and not from the manner in which the attempt has been made.

To encourage poor men to work, furnish them with the necessary implements; though boats and nets are not very

expensive, they are far too much so for the fishermen who use them to purchase.

In all trades where expensive tools are necessary, such as mills, or other machinery, it becomes the business of opulent men to furnish them to the poor labourer or journeyman; so ought boats, nets, and other requisites, to be furnished the poor fisherman. In order for the working man to get the benefit of the machine, he was obliged to become a journeyman; that is, though not a menial servant, a species of servant. This excluded many from those branches of business, and the rich, who had machinery, were the masters of the market, and enjoyed a sort of monopoly.

Advantageous as this was to those who had capital, and could afford to erect machinery, it only suited some persons who had capital; for, in order to reap benefit from their machines, they were obliged to enter into all the details of manufacture and employ workmen. Mutual wants always terminate in negotiation; and, in this case, the men who wished to labour independently, but had no machinery, applied to those who had machinery, for the use of it, at a certain price, for a particular purpose. This was readily agreed to by the man who wished to obtain advantage by the machinery, without entering into all the details of the manufacture; and it became a business to furnish machinery. Thus, rolling mills, slitting mills, machines for grinding, polishing, sawing, &c. &c. were erected and worked for the first customer, in the same manner as a cobbler does at his stall. This brought capital and industry to the aid of each other in a way they had never been in before.

It is unnecessary to enter into minute details of the cause of the rise or the decline of fisheries in different nations, which would make a volume; I shall therefore confine myself to the last few years, as the French revolution has given a new turn to this as well as many other branches. The present war may again produce a new order of things, so that we should be upon the alert to seize those opportunities which may arise.

The fisheries, at the breaking out of the French revolution, were divided betwixt the Dutch, the French, and the English. Bremen, Hamburg, and Denmark, had but a small share; but the latter power was so sensible of its importance, that, in 1785, the King of Denmark granted a bounty of about 30s. sterling per ton to all vessels in the Greenland or Iceland fisheries, on condition of their fitting out their ships and selling their cargoes in a Danish port. Foreign built ships were employed,

foreigners were encouraged to promote the view, and even foreign manufactures, necessary for the Greenland fishery, were allowed duty free. Hempseed oil was prohibited, or any other which could, in the most distant manner interfere with the produce of the fisheries, which give the greatest encouragement. The French, in 1788, had no small share of the fish trade; in that year they fitted out

To Newfoundland	373 ships	41865 tons.
To the islands St. Pierre and Miquellon	59	3581
South fishery	13	2982
Greenland	2	600
	447	49028

Of these, 430 ships 46909 tons returned; their cargoes produced 14,262,000 livres. The provisions, necessaries, expenses, and outfit cost 3,192,000. The greatest part, if not the whole of this trade the French have lost.

The Dutch fishery to Greenland, after the American war, did not average more than 66 ships each year. Twenty years previously upon the average 150 ships annually; but the North sea fishery, that upon our own coasts, was carried on to a greater extent by them, particularly the herring fishery, which they found, by experience, less hazardous and expensive, but more productive than the other fisheries.

Can any period then be more favourable, when we command the seas, and when the principal fisheries can be established on our own coast, when the Dutch are no longer our rivals, when the French fisheries are annihilated, when even the Weser and the Elbe are blockaded, so that Hamburg, Altona, or Bremen, cannot send a ship out, either on their own account, or in their names by Dutch capital. Embden is too insignificant; so that we have only Denmark to rival us.

Next to the production of grain, certainly the fisheries require our particular care and attention, not only as an article of food and traffic, but as a nursery for producing hardy and robust seamen, ready at all times to man our fleets, and fight our battles.

The former difficulties, relative to our fisheries, appear, by the present political state of Europe, to be done away, and if we do not take proper measures to promote there at the present

opportunity, (advantages which combined circumstances have given us at this moment), it is our own faults.

The Greenland fishery of England has been upon the decline, whilst that of Scotland has been upon the advance the last five years, and the southern whale fishery is stationary: the great and increasing importation of tallow, the depreciation in the price of whalebone, and the impress of seamen in the time of war, have all tended to cause the falling off in the Greenland fishery. That of the South sea is encouraged by high bounties, yet still it has not increased, though it has been prevented from decay.

With respect to our home fisheries, to which we mean more particularly to confine ourselves, as more connected with the nature of the work, and the quarter we have treated of, the field is wide, and the prospect highly promising, if we only embrace the opportunity, we may nearly get this trade into our own hands. Denmark alone can rival us. The great advancement of the fisheries of Norway, we have fully treated of, to which we must beg leave to refer the reader.

No country ever profited in every way, by the general confusion in Europe, more than Denmark, but in her fisheries in particular; a few observations may therefore urge us to follow the example of that kingdom. The year following the breaking out of the French revolution, Norway exported fish of her own catching and curing to different places in Europe, to the amount of about 270,000*l.* sterling. In 1799, upwards of 17,000 tons was exported; by enjoying neutrality, the belligerent powers being partly shut out of the fisheries, and England neglecting hers, Norway exported, in the year 1802, no less than 26500 tons in 411 ships, when five years before, she did not export half the quantity.

The ports from whence, and the countries to which the fish of Norway was exported, in 1802, will be seen in referring to Norway. In that year, about 2500 tons appear to have been cleared out for Great Britain and Ireland, which is operating against our own fisheries.

This is a subject of serious reflection to ourselves, when the fisheries of England, Scotland, or Ireland, or that of Newfoundland, ought to have supplied us instead; but the exportation of British cured fish appears upon the decline; that which we have exported has been at a considerable public expense, and the encouragement by great bounties and drawbacks.

The following is the official value of the fish exported, being the produce of Great Britain, in

1797		£.275144
1798		270490
1799		251418
1800		253267
1801		236295
1802		192203
1803		115025

It is then an alarming consideration that our exportation should be so much upon the decline, or that we should import fish at a high price from our neighbour, who had caught them near and upon our own coasts.

We have seen to what an extent Norway has increased her fishery in a short time; the similarity of the coast of Scotland to that of Norway, the inlets, islands, bays, and creeks of that kingdom, should make us turn our attention to it, when she enjoys such natural advantages by position and situation for the white herring and the deep sea fishery, as well as that of Greenland. These natural advantages will be materially improved and facilitated by the canal joining the Clyde and the Frith of Forth, the Crinan Canal already navigable, as the grand canal soon will be for the largest ships to pass betwixt Fort George and Inverness, connecting the North Sea and the Atlantic, through Scotland, in two parts.

As so many volumes have been written on the fisheries, and the government of this country has shewn sufficient inclination to encourage them, it will be sufficient to point out how that may be done.

A bounty offered to a poor man to produce an article he has not the means of producing is useless. Instead then of giving bounties for fish caught on the coast, let boats be constructed and let out under the direction of the minister and elders of the parish in Scotland, or those who manage the poor in England, and let the sum they are to pay be just sufficient for interest, tear and wear, &c. Being insured against the risk of the sea, the vessel never can remain unaccounted for, and the sum paid will be sufficient to replace it, when worn out by regular use.

There are not 200 parishes in Scotland that touch the coast, and probably 200l. in each, on the average, might be sufficient, and put in activity 20,000 people in this beneficial enterprise; and this sum might properly be applied under the re-

sponsibility of each parish, the officers of whom, or those who have the direction, should be bound to see to its proper application.

The taking off the duty on salt would be the next thing necessary, and the way to do that, without hurting the revenue materially would be by allowing those who wanted salt to cure fish to have the quantity necessary, duty free, on giving a bond on unstampt paper, to cure the quantity of fish, return the salt, or pay the duty. This would do ten times better than a drawback, which does not prevent the necessity of an advance of money, though it afterwards repays it.

In fishing and curing fish, the business is to enable people who live on the coast to do it with advantage and with little capital, for men who have capital seek easier employments.

To give an example. If nail making, weaving, spinning, and several other branches of business, by which great numbers of poor live, and the country is much enriched, required expensive apparatus, they would never be carried on as they are; but a spinning-wheel costs only a few shillings, and the apparatus of a nailor's shop only a few pounds, and that generally is not his own. It is then necessary to give the fisherman the same advantage.

Large enterprizes which generally end in a job that enriches some, ruins many, and discredits the object undertaken, appear most congenial to the nation, most rational for those who have projects to offer only because something may be got by them; but they are not always the best for the country.

Nothing here is meant against the South Sea fishery and the Greenland and Newfoundland fisheries; but it is meant to be maintained, that the near, but extended and beneficial fisheries, on our own coasts, would be well worth encouragement, and that this is the way to do it.

The utility of fisheries, for procuring food, and as a nursery for seamen, has been often mentioned, but let us consider the necessity of keeping in the country part of those immense sums that go to Russia for tallow, and we shall see a farther reason for this encouragement. We cannot produce more tallow than we do at present, without growing more butcher's meat, and that is out of the question, (doing it on purpose,) and we cannot diminish the consumption by any other means to a considerable extent, but by increasing the quantity of oil, and reducing its price.

Taking the subject of fisheries in every view, then, they deserve encouragement, and this mode appears to be the best,

even if the revenue should suffer a little, and if some trouble should be given to those who have the care of letting out boats and nets. No good is attained without some evil, and no advantage obtained without trouble and pains; and surely, these regulations are much less complicated or difficult to execute than many of the laws about permits and licenses under the excise and customs.

As for particular details, pointing out the mode by which they might be the most easily tried, those are ready, but it would be both absurd and improper to intrude on the public, details which come soon enough, when those who have the power of adoption have approved of the principle.

Tallow.

The quantity of money that goes out of the kingdom for tallow is a matter become of very great importance; and, either for the manufacture of soap, or for giving light, oil is the only material that can supply its place; and, no doubt, in the first instance, it would be well to give premiums, and encourage the producing of oil, as there is no possibility of raising a sufficient quantity of tallow within the United Kingdom. The manners of the people are such, that the consumption increases far beyond the means of supply that we have within ourselves; and tallow is not one of those articles that can either be created at will, or independent of other more natural produce.

It has already been stated that the consumption of butcher's meat has been carried to a length that endangers our supplies of grain, and the quantity of tallow cannot be increased without the farther augmentation of this danger, and that in so prodigious a degree as not to be thought of or attempted, or that even if attempted could be attended with any probable success.

The produce of grass land is far inferior to that of the same extent of land in corn; and the proportion of that produce which consists of tallow is but a small part; so that even if all the corn land of England were converted into grass, the tallow raised would not probably be sufficient to supply the market. From fisheries then alone we must expect a supply of this necessary and great article of consumption.

It is not here, however, the intention to exalt any one resource at the expense either of truth or of the general interests of the nation: it is therefore necessary to state, that South America

produces tallow in great quantities, and preferable in quality, at least more esteemed by soap-boilers and tallow-chandlers, than that which comes from the north. If we had any direct connexion with South America, we could obtain any quantity, but it was only recently discovered, and we can only obtain it by the means of Spain.

When upon this subject, it may not be improper to remark, that England, which is the greatest power by sea, has never pretended to keep the trade of its East India possessions exclusively to itself, nor of its colonies in America, yet Spain, a very feeble power, has succeeded, not only in that, but even in preventing the people of the colonies themselves from fitting out any ships to carry their own produce.

It would appear that it is the prosperity of Britain, not its mode of acting (which is very liberal) that creates displeasure and envy among other nations; and that, on the contrary, the poverty of the Spaniards exempts their selfish and unjust conduct from the censure that it really merits.

South America, in the hands of Spaniards, is of no importance to the commercial world; but if the intercourse with it was in any degree free, as it is to India, or was to British America, it would be found productive of many general advantages, and produce treble the quantity of tallow that Russia exports, at full a quarter of the present price.

From the following table it will appear that our supply of tallow is almost totally from Russia, that it is augmenting rapidly, and that the amount was, in 1799, more than one million sterling, at the price paid in the country.

Total of Tallow imported into Great Britain, distinguishing the Countries from whence imported into England only, and the aggregate from all Places into Scotland each Year.

Years.	Denmark.	Russia.	Prussia.	Germany.	Holland.	France.	Ireland.	Other Countries.	Total from different countries to England.	Total from different countries to Scotland.	Total to Great Britain.
	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.
1786		186535	6		560	980	12659	2	200743	46579	247322
1787		260162	1598	1693	3030	1020	24577	35	292116	64364	356480
1788	80	313858	533	93			10650	1800	327017	28028	355045
1789		212167	732	1926	2000	301	15425	3062	235645	24481	260126
1790		191413	480	1400	2300		16394	6092	218079	37841	255920
1791		121429		928	7		14725	1996	139087	25775	164862
1792		124154	643	1200	8379	24379	15004	1902	175663	26193	201856
1793	778	195660	506	715	4257	1111	6204	2246	211479	23529	235008
1794	828	164335					10913	222	176290	25873	202172
1795		109923	122	464	958		15601	2018	129088	51718	180806
1796	6254	248924	1920	15119			11581	3683	287483	43500	330983
1797		174161	823	8240	626		18285	3816	205953	38088	244041
1798	4427	355447	2140	14509	584		8022	1157	386290	53621	439911
1799	916	344657	3162	8874	45		11960	4244	373262	76954	450216
1800											415000
1801											332000
1802											555000
1803											537000
1804											

To so great an extent has the importation of tallow increased in this country, and is still increasing, that upon the average of the five last years, reckoning the actual first cost only in foreign countries, it has amounted to upwards of £.1,500,000. By the time it is landed here, adding the freight, insurance, and charges, it has cost the individual consumers of this nation from 60 to 75 pounds per ton, and even higher, within that period.

Therefore, by promoting and establishing the fisheries, we not only procure oil for our consumption, but food likewise for

the poor, and riches to the country at large, by the exportation of what we catch and cure.

Besides the addition to the food for the people, which is a great object in every country, but particularly so in an island like Britain, the immense sums that are yearly drawn out of it for tallow might be in a great measure saved, by proper encouragement of her fisheries; and as it has been observed that, in the event of our not being able to extend our exportation, or perhaps even to keep it up at its present rate, we must endeavour to diminish the importation, there is not any thing by which we could do this more effectually than by encouraging the fisheries.

In consequence of the American war, our fisheries in that quarter were so totally interrupted, and the supplies of oil we received from thence so much diminished, that serious alarms were then entertained that we should become dependent upon some foreign power for oil, as a substitute for tallow; and in 1775 it was stated, as a serious national object, that the consumption of fish oil, as a substitute for tallow, did not cost the city of London alone a less sum than £.300,000 sterling at that time.

The idea of using tallow, then, instead of oil, appeared a grievance, whilst using tallow instead of oil has now become a national concern of no small magnitude. It has been the cause of neglecting our fisheries, and upwards of two millions per annum ready money going out of the country for tallow. This article alone has been upon the increase, whilst the produce of oil has been nearly stationary for the last fourteen years, as the following account of the importation of whale oil from all quarters will best prove.

The Quantity of Whale Oil imported into Great Britain from the following and other Places, in the Years were,

			Tons.	hhd.	gal.
In 1787	Greenland		9905	1	51
	South fishery		2184	1	25
	British colonies		3447	0	43
	British West Indies			2	43
	States of America		230	1	36
	Denmark		7	0	0
	France		22	3	22
	Ireland		11	1	0
			15809	0	31
1788	.	.	.	.	Tons 15677
1789	.	.	.	.	14127
1790	.	.	.	.	12539
1791	.	.	.	.	10740
1792	.	.	.	.	10739
1793	.	.	.	.	11661
	Prize	.	.	.	247
1794	.	.	.	.	10899
	Prize	.	.	.	101
1795	.	.	.	.	10024
	Prize	.	.	.	166
1796	.	.	.	.	11437
	Prize	.	.	.	206
1797	.	.	.	.	13599
	Prize	.	.	.	3
1798	.	.	.	.	12132
1799	.	.	.	.	12990
	Prize	.	.	.	22
1800	.	.	.	.	13236
	Prize	.	.	.	33

Of the above was British produce, and exported according to the official rates in

1797	.	.	.	.	.	£.17600
1798	.	.	.	.	.	28510
1799	.	.	.	.	.	31334
1800	.	.	.	.	.	105770
1801	.	.	.	.	.	61892
1802	.	.	.	.	.	147868
1803	.	.	.	.	.	41228

The manners and the fashion of the people, but above all the great increase of the cotton manufacture are the principal causes of the great and increasing demand for tallow, as it is now so much used in soap-making for home consumption and exportation.* In Germany, they not only use large quantities of fish oil for this purpose, but still larger quantities of hempseed oil, which they import from Russia, some years equal in quantity to all the whale oil we have imported from all quarters; it might partake of the nature of rape oil for our cloth manufactures.

Tallow is more generally consumed for lights than oil, which was not the case formerly; but the introduction of lamps might not only be brought into more general use, but, by the improvement of them, the consumption of oil diminished.

As the manufactures of soap and candles are the chief consumption of tallow, and oil can be used in both cases, there is not a doubt that, if it was to be had cheap, and in sufficient quantity, it would be used on most occasions, and might save immense sums of money that go from this country, particularly one and a half million at least on tallow, never to return.

Amongst the effects of luxury, or if the term may be thought more applicable, the little necessity that is paid to economy, even amongst the lower classes, the use of soft soap has been almost entirely laid aside; not that it is less fit for every purpose of washing, but merely because the economy attached to its use had ceased to be an object, and the hard soap looks cleaner, and custom, not reason, has obtained it the preference.

Some steps should be taken to encourage the use of soft soap, which is made with oil, for ordinary purposes, and if once the custom of using it were introduced it would never again be abandoned.

* When oil was used formerly, those who used lindseys, woolseys, filks, and other clothing, no longer wear them; even the servant girls must have their wash-gowns and fine linen.

CHAPTER VI.

Of Wood. Our domestic Growth. Supplies from British American Plantations. Of Pitch and Tar. Quantity imported.

IN our general observations on the resources of the country, it was observed that wood was one of those that required and deserved the encouragement of government. It required the encouragement, because the proprietors of land are frequently in a situation not to admit of their laying out any money on an object, the return for which is beyond the probability of human life, even with the timber that grows up the most rapidly; but with oak, elm, ash, and a variety of other sorts, the return is not to be looked for in less than two or three generations.

It was mentioned, as an object of national importance, not of personal advantage; it is therefore one of all others to which government is the most imperiously called to lend assistance when it is required.

It is not meant to be said that the proprietors of land have not any interest in planting trees, but that the interest is too small to operate, when it cannot be done with ease, and without much exertion. A rich man will naturally wish to increase the affluence of his posterity, but all proprietors of land are not wealthy, and therefore those that are not must be assisted; and even premiums are not sufficient, in the case where there is real inability, and no return at all.

In the case of flax, hemp, or fisheries, there is a return : and a premium may serve to counterbalance any small deficiency in profit ; but in timber, to him who plants, there is no return at all ; and, though profit will accrue, it will be to him that reaps, and not to him that sows and plants.

It is not by this account to be said that premiums are not proper, and attended with advantage, as productive of a good effect ; but that, in some cases, premiums alone will not answer, as it may be impossible for the proprietors of land, in certain cases, to find the means of planting his lands.

Barren timber is the only sort of produce, the return of which is beyond the span of human life ; it is consequently the only one for the cultivation of which there is not a return made to indemnify for the trouble and expense ; but Nature, which is wonderful in all her works, has always supplied the first stock of trees herself. Timber is the only vegetable produce of great utility, that grows up without cultivation and the aid of man ; so that all uninhabited countries have been found abounding in wood and forests ; but as men no sooner begin to people a country than they begin to consume the forests, it is their business to plant, after they have reduced them below the proper quantity ; and perhaps there is no way so easy to account for the ruin and desolation of some countries, as by investigating the natural consequences of letting forests go entirely to decay, which is a thing that, when done, cannot be remedied in sufficient time to prevent the destruction of a country : what we have already stated of the wood in Russia has confirmed this observation.

To enter into this examination at length would be foreign to the nature of this work ; but it must be allowed that negligence, in this respect, may destroy a country, and that, as new countries have a vigour in them which is not to be found in old ones, the abundance or want of timber is probably one of the great causes.

The other produce of the earth being renewable at a short period, and the inducement to its renovation being great, it is not very likely to fall off of itself ; and, as to the nature of ground, we do not find that it becomes barren by a course of cultivation, if not very injudiciously managed indeed. The minerals of a country may become entirely exhausted, for there is no mode of renovation possible ; the timber may fall to decay for a great length of time ; but the common produce of land can always, with industry, be kept up, or if it could be sup-

posed to be entirely neglected, yet a year or two would be sufficient to bring it back again.

The produce of mines may, in general, be carried at a moderate expense from one country to another; and, indeed, there are many countries that never had much of that sort of produce; but it is different with timber; the quantity wanted is so great, and its weight has such a proportion to its value, that it would not be possible to supply any country entirely with timber for all purposes.

From the tables that follow it will appear that the quantity of timber imported is very considerable; and when it is considered that we are wasting and wearing out our forests at home, it will be allowed that the consumption of the article is very great.

From an opinion given in 1771, by thirty persons, in different counties in England, who were in the timber trade, and gave each their opinion relative to the counties adjacent to their residence, and of the decay or decrease of oak timber within their knowledge, and it appears to have been very alarming indeed.

The youngest of those dealers spoke of fourteen years knowledge only in the county of Essex, and estimated it at three-fourths. Those who recollected for forty or fifty years, spoke of a much greater consumption, and some of the almost total destruction of the woods.

Making, however, some allowance for the propensity to exaggerate, whatever one either admires, laments, or regrets, which latter feeling must, on this occasion, have been the predominant one; there can be no doubt that, in some places, the destruction was nearly total, and, in others, above one-half on an average; as that is the smallest diminution expected; that lowest estimate, is only for one county, namely, Cheshire.

It is not to be doubted that other timber diminished nearly as much as oak, though none is perhaps so essentially important to this country, none for general use is so long of growing, or bears so high a price.

It would be but proper to compel those who cut down timber, and thereby reap the advantage of the foresight of their fathers, to plant an equal quantity; because such persons ought to continue the advantage to their posterity, and they always can afford to spare the money; but it is different for those who have barren lands to plant: and to those it is that assistance should be given.

The improvement of waste lands, and the planting of trees, are two objects which, as the returns are slow, a commercial people are not likely to carry to any great extent, or pursue with vigour. The capital acquired by trade, or by other means, in England, will naturally be employed according to the ruling genius of the people, which is for sure employment and regular and quick returns.

In treating of Russia, we have already explained the causes which gave rise to the prohibition of exporting timber: improvident management, and the destruction occasioned by the iron mines. That prohibition gave a new turn all at once to the timber trade of the Baltic; the price, which had been gradually advancing every where in that quarter, at once doubled in the first cost. In the timber trade of Russia alone about three hundred sail of British ships were employed; when that trade ceased, by the prohibition, the other ports in the Baltic were greatly injured, and could not secure that traffic Russia had turned away, because the principal supplies originally came from provinces under that dominion. The trade immediately fled to Norway, from whence we received very considerable supplies, at very advanced prices; and such has been the great exportation from that country, that its stock must, in the course of a few years, be exhausted; at least that which is suitable for the British market. Sweden does not export any considerable quantity. The chief supplies, which can be exported from the Baltic, must come from Riga, Memel, and Dantzic, and they, on a reference to the map, will be found to have their timber from the Russian provinces. Since the total prohibition to the exportation the trade has been opened again, but in a manner too limited for our consumption.

In referring to the ports in the Baltic, such as Riga, Petersburg, Memel, Dantzic, and Stettin, from whence we have received our chief supplies, some useful particulars will be found. Of the aggregate exportation of timber from the Baltic, Great Britain and Ireland take a principal part. It is owing to the exhausted state of the forests, occasioned by the prodigious consumption of this island, that the prices of timber have been raised so very high. The official value is given for one year, stating the description of the articles exported, and the aggregate state of the whole subsequently.

In the Year 1791, the official value of Timber imported into Great Britain, was,

	£.	s.	d.
Balks	10296	3	9
Battens	10961	9	0
Boards	6074	4	1
Cedar	967	14	3
Deals and deal ends	103066	17	1
Lath wood	9910	5	4
Masts	81919	17	0
Oak plank	10666	7	2
Pine	14912	12	9
Staves	57292	4	9
Timber, fir	152494	6	3
oak	9501	3	9
Ufers	2840	0	10
Wainscot-logs	6350	19	4
Other wood	18376	12	3
	£.495810	17	7

In 1792	£. 600917
1793	496690
1794	444591
1795	508436
1796	726711
1797	584784
1798	471054
1799	466068
1800	629881

In the following Years the undermentioned Articles are rated.

	1801.	1802.	1803.
Deals	£. 84808	86623	106526
Masts	356138	155778	170864
Fir timber	119839	191054	212038
	£.560785	£.433455	£.489428

Such is the official rate in the custom-house books; this is greatly below even what the duties produce, which in the year 1803, was 663098l. 18s. 2d. in England; 72806l. 8s. 9d. in Scotland; the total 731315l. 1s. 11d. for such articles of that description only we have described, coming chiefly from the Baltic and the north of Europe, (fustic, logwood, mahogany, and redwood, are of course excepted,) but to illustrate the whole in a still more striking manner, the following is the duty paid upon all wood imported into Great Britain, distinguishing England from Scotland, and the total nett amount in the year 1804.

	England.			Scotland.			Total Nett duties		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Balks	4407	9	11	5829	8	1	10236	18	0
Battens	13277	7	9	1256	8	9	14533	16	6
Boards, paling	2868	9	1	71	3	7	2939	12	8
wainscot	674	11	6				674	11	6
Deals	244926	12	4	10748	4	1	255674	16	5
Deal ends	8374	18	0	754	3	0	9129	1	0
Fustic	3649	18	0	294	13	1	3944	11	1
Lathwood	9222	12	3	895	19	4	10118	11	7
Mahogany	3098	4	0	204	9	5	3302	13	5
Mafts	32485	13	8	3810	16	4	36296	10	0
Oars	17038	14	9	605	5	11	17644	0	8
Plank, oak	1900	8	4	179	1	6	2079	9	10
Redwood	18241	17	6	1428	10	0	19670	7	6
Staves	2468	18	7	115	4	3	2584	2	10
Timber, fir	25343	10	8	1067	6	10	26410	17	6
oak	220202	19	4	27044	11	0	247247	10	4
Ufers	2032	7	10	354	12	11	2387	0	9
Wainscot logs	2128	8	10	46	2	3	2174	11	1
	8980	3	0	129	15	5	9110	2	5
	£.621323	5	4	54835	15	9	676159	5	1

The high prices we are paying for timber, in the countries around the Baltic, is not because they conceive us totally dependent upon them for the article, but because their stocks are so greatly diminished as to cause a want amongst themselves, which we have seen by the conduct of Russia: the price consequently is advanced. To this is to be added the heavier expense in bringing it from remote quarters, distant from inland navigation; so that, if our demand continues, as it has done, for a few years, we shall scarcely receive any but at so high a price that we must of necessity resort elsewhere. It is a happy circumstance of this country, that we have a sufficient supply in our American possessions, which the interest of individuals will

now bring forth : the beginning is made, and the importation from thence greatly increasing every year. The high price we pay for what we import from the Baltic, the carrying it to our own ports in their ships, and the duties paid here on foreign timber, and none from our own possessions, are considerations for the merchants and ship owners, which make this an object of material importance. This we shall more particularly describe under the head of shipping; so that the result is, that we can now supply ourselves cheaper, from our own possessions in America, than we can from the Baltic; and, for the information of those who are in that trade, more minute particulars are given to turn their attention, and employ their shipping in the British plantation trade.

The British colonies in North America, of greatest extent, are Upper and Lower Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, which are but thinly inhabited, particularly New Brunswick. They are covered with immense forests of trees, the greater part of which are pine; the sort of wood in most general use.

These provinces, from the straits of Belisle to the Bay, which separate them from the state of Massachusetts, are intersected with bays and inlets of the sea, navigable rivers and branches for small craft, and for rafting and floating down timber. The whole coast, from Casco bay to the above mentioned straits, is lined with harbours, where vessels of any size may load in safety; some of which are spacious enough to contain all the navy of Great Britain.

Among other navigable rivers we may mention the St. Lawrence, in Canada; the St. John, Miramichi, and St. Croix, in New Brunswick; Pictou, La Have, and Annapolis, in Nova Scotia; from all of which quantities of timber have been, and may be exported to Great Britain.

In the state of Massachusetts, particularly the district known by the name of the province of Main, which includes the country from Casco bay to the British lines at Passomoquoddy, are many large navigable rivers, and a great extent of country covered with wood. The ports hitherto most frequented in that district are, Wiscasset, Penobscot, Portland, Machiers, and Frenchman's bay, but there are many more harbours of less repute, where ships of burden may load in safety.

The principal ports in Nova Scotia for loading timber, are, Pictou, Guysbourg, and La Have. The former is situated within the gut of Cunso, south of Prince Edward, formerly St. John's island, and of course is shut after the frost sets in, and not open in general before April or May.

There has been a considerable quantity of timber exported of late from this river ; but the size of the pines is not so large, nor is there so great an extent of interior as in Canada or New Brunswick.

Guysburg is in Chadebuets bay, without the gut of Cunso ; but, being few settlers in the neighbourhood, there has not been much timber exported from it. La Have is a few leagues to the westward of Halifax harbour, and is accessible at all seasons. But the rivers St. John, Miramichi, and St. Croix, in New Brunswick, are navigable, some of them 100 miles, and furnish the greatest quantities of pine, and other timber for the British market.

The great river St. John, at the mouth of which are the city and harbour of that name, empties itself into the north-west side of the bay of Fundy ; the harbour is never frozen. It is from this river that the largest and best pine masts have been procured for the British navy ; and the greatest quantity of timber has been shipped from it to Great Britain. St. Croix, or Passomoquoddy, has likewise furnished masts for the navy, as well as large quantities of square timber for Britain, and lumber for the West Indies. Miramichi is situated in the gulf of St. Lawrence, north-west of Prince Edward's island ; some masts have also been procured here for the navy ; but the intricate navigation, and being frozen up six months in the year, occasioned this branch to be discontinued. From this river, large quantities of square timber and lumber for the Newfoundland and West India markets have been exported.

Canada is a country of great extent ; and the river St. Lawrence navigable for large vessels as far as Montreal. Upper Canada, in particular, is capable of supplying any quantity of timber, and cannot be exhausted for a long time. It has this advantage over the other British provinces, that there is plenty of white oak, of an excellent quality, to be got from it ; and, of late, some of this oak has been used for the royal navy ; but, the voyage being longer, freights are higher than from either of the ports in New Brunswick or Nova Scotia.

From this vast extent of country, covered with wood, a supply of pine and other timber may be drawn, sufficient for the consumption of the British empire for ages. For, although the timber near the navigable water, in many parts, is cut down, yet, in the interior, the quantity is almost inexhaustible. It must however, be allowed that the greater the distance it has to be hauled, the higher the price must be, and the depreciation of money in that country, as well as in Great Britain, must en-

hance the price of labour, and, in consequence, the cost of the article produced by it.

It is upwards of twenty years since some trading companies in Greenock established houses in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, for the purpose of importing timber from thence, and they have continued in the trade ever since. Others have followed their example, and large quantities of American pine, black birch, and other timber, are imported every year into the Clyde, Liverpool, and other ports; and there are to be seen in the west of Scotland, a number of houses entirely finished with American pine, superior to what is to be met with in other parts of the kingdom, where nothing but Memel timber was used in house finishing.* Some cargoes have lately been imported into Leith, Newcastle, and Hull, where it will soon become in general use.

Since the year 1789, the royal navy of Britain has been supplied with American pine masts from New Brunswick, some of them as large as 34 and 35 inches diameter at the partners, after being trimmed into 16 squares; but these sizes are rare to be met with, and attended with great risk and expense of felling and hauling: it only shews the great size to which the pine timber of that country grows. The general sizes procured for government are from 20 to 30 inches diameter; and, notwithstanding the price in the country is near double what they cost twelve years ago, and the expense of navigation more than double, government are supplied with American white pine masts, yards, and bowsprits for the royal navy, at less than half the price they pay for Riga masts, &c. of the same dimensions; and although it is admitted that the white pine masts are not so strong, nor will they last so long as the Riga, yet they have this great advantage over the latter, that they are not near so heavy, and the difference in price must be a great saving to government and individuals.

Although pine is a species of timber most generally used, there are other sorts of timber imported from North America, black birch, black spruce, elm, ash, maple, &c.

The price of pine square logs, delivered alongside, in safe harbours, was some years ago from 2 to 2½ dollars per ton, of 40 feet, or from 11s. to 14s. per load. Black birch, elm, and other hard wood, from 3 to 4 dollars per ton, or from 17s. to 22s.

* It is now in such repute, that not a single cargo of Memel timber was imported last year into the Clyde.

per load; at present, pine costs 20s. to 22s. 6d. per load, and hard wood from 28s. to 30s. per load.

White pine lasts for a great number of years, when water is not allowed to lodge in it. It is in general free from knots, and very fit for house work.

Black spruce is a species of fir, that does not grow to a very large size; it is strong and tough; it is commonly used for masts and spars to merchantmen, and sometimes as hand masts for the navy, being stronger and tougher than Norway spars. The roots of the black spruce make good knees for small vessels.

Black birch is a hard wood; when wrought up, it is scarcely distinguishable from, and is an excellent substitute for mahogany, particularly in small furniture. It has now come into general use, where the quality is known. Of this wood a number of vessels are built in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, but it is not found so durable as oak. This is partly owing to not cutting out the sap wood, and not giving it time to season.

A large quantity of black birch is annually imported into the Clyde, and it now finds its way into other parts of the kingdom.

American white ash is found to be of a superior quality to what is brought from the Baltic, and answers well for oars, rafters, capstan bars, &c.

The freights to and from North America, have lately advanced in proportion with those to other parts: formerly, ships were chartered to carry home timber from North America, at from 40s. to 50s. a load. The common freights now paid from Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, are from 75s. to 80s. per load, and from Canada from 80s. to 100s. per load, notwithstanding which timber can be imported from North America, and sold in Great Britain, at a lower price than it can be imported from the Baltic.

By encouraging the timber trade from North America, a national benefit arises, which should never be lost sight of, the employment of more than double the number of seamen, and double the tonnage of shipping, that would be required to transport an equal quantity of timber from the Baltic; for vessels can make two or three voyages to and from Memel, for one that can be made to and from North America.

To the British colonies in North America, only two voyages can be made in the year. The time generally taken to perform one is from three to four months, including the time to load and unload.

The ports into which American timber has been imported are, Greenock, Port Glasgow, Saltcoats, Irvine, Whitehaven, and Liverpool, on the west coast; and Leith, Newcastle, and Hull, on the east coast.

One observation may be allowed to be made here, which is, to prevent an error or a neglect we are likely to fall into, and for which we have condemned others.

Timber in North America is indiscriminately cut down, and little care taken to keep a constant succession: there is an act of parliament prohibiting the cutting of pine timber above 12 or 14 inches diameter, without a license from the surveyor general of his majesty's woods, which ought to be particularly attended to. Timber is now cut for clearing land, and for the purpose of sawing into lumber for the West Indies, and even the British market; and very frequently it is to be purchased at considerable less rates than those already mentioned.

Comparison of the Cost of importing Timber from the Baltic, and from the British Plantations.

If from the Baltic.

	£.	s.	d.
First cost of a load of timber	1	15	6
Freight	1	15	0
Insurance 4 per cent. to return 2 per cent. for convoy	0	0	8
Customs, fees, and Sound dues			
	1	10	4
	5	1	6

If from the British Plantations.

	£.	s.	d.
First cost will be about	1	0	0
Freight	3	16	0
Insurance 8 per cent. to return 4 per cent.	0	0	7
Duty			
	4	16	7

After what has been said, it is unnecessary to make any further remarks on the resource we at present have, first, of supplying ourselves with timber from our own American possessions;

and, the next, in time to raise it within ourselves, at a less price than we can get it elsewhere.

Of Pitch and Tar.

Pitch and tar being produced from timber, and from that sort of timber which we import from the north, we shall consider those articles in this place, rather than treat of them in a separate chapter.

Tar from Russia is chiefly, if not entirely, exported from Archangel, which port has been famous for a considerable time past: or rather soon after the Swedish pitch and tar company, in 1703, endeavoured to make the English not only pay their own price, but receive it in Swedish shipping, that port, and Stockholm in Sweden, were the principal places from whence Great Britain received her supplies, before the trade became general from America (occasioned by the cause mentioned); when the attempt at monopoly of those articles in Sweden, by the government, as well as that of Russia, at Archangel, compelled us to hit upon some other expedient, and to obtain supplies from America. Had both Sweden and Russia left these articles to the regular course of trade, we should not have given the encouragement, at that time, to our possessions in America.

It appears that at an early period, the exportation of tar from Archangel, was as much as 480,000 barrels; in the year 1803, only 140,385 barrels; but the spirit of monopoly we have mentioned, drove away this trade in part to America, which country can supply the European nations at a cheaper rate.

The quantities of pitch and tar wanted in this country will increase in proportion to our shipping; therefore, it must be hoped, that no diminution is likely to take place in the production.

As these articles come from timber, the encouraging the planting of that, is the only way to preserve them within ourselves; but even then, it is a question, which a trial only can decide, whether it will be found to answer the purpose. The trial, however, is still worth making, and, in the mean time, as the northern nations, going always on the plan of high prices, raise their demands in proportion to our want of the article, it would be of great advantage to procure from our settlements in America, as much as we can.

Pitch and tar, merely considered as articles that draw money out of the country, are not of much importance, and viewing them in that light only, perhaps it would not be of any great advantage to endeavour to find a supply at home; but as most

essential articles of naval stores, they are of a first-rate importance, and even our provinces in America, ought not to be depended upon for supply. Circumstances in future times may cut us off from that resource; we shall not then consider it as a matter merely of profit and loss, but as one nearly connected with our national safety, and as such recommend it particularly to the attention of government, whether it should upon trial, be found to be a gaining or a losing enterprise.

To shew the quarters from whence we have received supplies of pitch and tar, as well as the quantity, a table is given of that which has been imported into England from all places; Scotland likewise receiving supplies from the same quarters, the aggregate quantity for that kingdom only is given, and then the whole added together, imported into this island.

Pitch and Tar imported into Great Britain, particularizing the Places from whence imported into England, and that into Scotland, in toto.

	Denmark.		Russia.		Sweden.		St. of Am.		Other countries.		Total of England.		Total into Scotland.	
Years.	Pitch.	Tar.	Pitch.	Tar.	Pitch.	Tar.	Pitch.	Tar.	Pitch.	Tar.	Pitch.	Tar.	Pitch.	Tar.
	lasts.	lasts.	lasts.	lasts.	lasts.	lasts.	lasts.	lasts.	lasts.	lasts.	lasts.	lasts.	lasts.	lasts.
1786		137	420	2647	265	2388	145	1822	118	830	7114	25	1077	
1787		111	927	2557	378	3605	447	3465	15	1753	9754	27	1555	
1788	141	261	384	3244	152	1687	19	2617		698	7810	20	837	
1789	5	113	165	1306	491	2868	80	2753	3	744	7044	8	783	
1790		171	459	2535	483	4566	232	5337	5	1176	12615	69	1245	
1791		167	747	2639	109	1655	56	2203	68	917	6733	70	958	
1792	14	169	270	2365	387	2870	160	3124	6	832	8536	64	1500	
1793	24	102	226	1513	490	4447	236	2929	10	977	9004	18	706	
1794	6	145	236	5899	402	3078	101	2141	20	746	11285	15	1118	
1795	7	184	426	1896	484	3409	69	3843	31	408	1017	5	361	
1796	8	117	330	2781	1307	4906	317	3337	16	138	1980	25	750	
1797	42	201	498	1750	263	2359	221	2613	24	37	1049	43	972	
1798		168	581	5005	459	4513	66	1586	27	131	1135	33	1585	
1799	4	67	519	7264	674	7325	37	2285	16	290	1252	13	1319	

Had not government, in the beginning of last century, paid attention to the business of pitch and tar, Sweden might have still been selling to us at an exorbitant price the quantities that she might have thought proper to send over; but her avarice and mistaken policy bent the bow till it broke; for,

in 1703, Queen Anne solicited in vain for a supply: bribes, intreaties, and every other means failed. But this put the nation on seeking a supply elsewhere, and particularly in our North American colonies. Sweden has now nearly lost the trade, and we are entirely free from dependence upon her. The northern nations all follow the same policy with every article, that the Swedes did with the tar, though not to so great an extreme. They have not learned wisdom by experience, nor reduced their demands; but we ought to learn it, and seek for new sources from which we can obtain supplies of every sort of naval stores. This conclusion is indeed so evident, that it would be useless to insist farther on a subject that is so plainly demonstrated from past experience.

CHAPTER VII.

Of Iron, as an increasing Resource. A Comparison between the Manufacture of it in this Country, and in Russia and Sweden.

THIS metal, unquestionably, is the most useful of all; not only as applying to such a great variety of purposes, but as being capable to be manufactured to a state seven hundred times more valuable than even gold. It was remarked by an author, even at the beginning of the last century, “that the same quantity of iron-stone which, when first taken from its natural bed was not worth five shillings, when made into iron and steel, and then into various manufactures for foreign markets, might in some cases bring home to the value of ten thousand pounds.”

That iron may by labour be made seven hundred times dearer than standard gold, weight for weight, is no exaggeration. In the making watch springs, six, seven, and eight, will only weigh one grain; the price is from six-pence to one guinea each; but in the very finest work for the very best watches, reckoning only six to a grain, which is even too little, then, at a guinea each, iron can be made seven hundred and fifty-six times dearer than gold.

It is astonishing that a material, so truly important, should, without any aid or encouragement from government, excepting a duty on foreign iron imported, have risen to so high a pitch, whilst others, such as our linens, have had bounties, premiums, and encouragement, and yet have made but little advance, whilst the iron manufactures are extending and increasing in general.

There can be no doubt that iron has been made in England at all times: the Romans had iron-works in Gloucestershire, where traces have been found of their forges and utensils. We formerly imported some from Spain, where, in the year 989, there are accounts of the Moors manufacturing it of a most excellent quality.

The first act of parliament in England relative to iron was in 1354, when Edward III. prohibited the exportation, not only of the British made iron, but that which was imported; on account of the high price then paid in England for that article.

From that period till about the middle of the 16th century, at one interval, a rage existed, and licenses were granted, for transmuting metals into gold and silver; each applicant conceiving that he had found the philosopher's stone. These bubbles, in King Henry the Sixth and Edward the Fourth's time, no doubt were the means of extending the iron founderies in this country, and they must have considerably increased in that time.

In 1581 (Queen Elizabeth's reign) an act passed that no iron-works were to be established within twenty-two miles of London, nor within fourteen miles of the Thames; only in some parts in Sussex, and no where near the sea; nor was any wood in those districts to be cut down for making iron. In 1585 another act was passed, that no iron-works should be established in Surry, Kent, or Sussex; and no timber, above a certain size, was to be cut down for the purpose of carrying on any iron-works.

Notwithstanding several restraints, it was about this time that the importance of this branch of our manufactures began to be felt. In 1630 an act was made prohibiting the importation of foreign wire, wool-cards made thereof, and other articles made of foreign wire. It was only sixty-five years before this period, that we used to import these things. The foreign became prohibited; and the English wire, made from the native "Osmond iron was found the toughest and best."

There must, however, have been some defect in the making of iron; for, in 1637, a proclamation was issued that pigs and bars of English made iron should be marked, by the king's surveyors, to prevent the sale of bad iron; and some restrictions were likewise issued relative to cutting wood.

In 1715, in Virginia, in America, pig and bar iron were first made; and, in consequence of some regulations relative to naval stores from British America, in 1719, a jealousy was shewn in this country of the iron-works establishing in Ame-

rica, and some restrictive clauses were introduced by parliament unfavourable to the works in the colonies. The proprietors of the iron-mines at home at this period, in consequence of the claims of the colonists to establish forges and works, seem to have been a good deal roused, and to have made such representations of the iron-trade at home as to give us a pretty correct idea of its state at that period, one which Peter the Great of Russia was likewise pushing in his dominions; so that with Sweden and Russia the iron-founders in England had powerful competitors, with America too in view.

In the year following, 1720, some further light was thrown on the iron-trade, by a Mr. W. Wood, who at that time was the most considerable iron-master in Great Britain; who had the mines on the crown lands of thirty-nine counties, and the largest iron-works in the kingdom for making bar-iron, rolling, slitting, and preparing it for several uses; and furnaces for all articles in which cast-iron was then generally used. He states that at this time we used about 30,000 tons of iron annually, of which, for want of cord wood, we were obliged to import about 20,000 tons; and as there was iron-stone enough, and no fuel to work it with, he recommended the planting and raising of copices on waste and other lands. In short, at that period, our iron-masters were much in the same state in England for want of fuel, as the Russian iron-masters now find themselves for their works in that empire.

As our true interests began to be seen in giving some protection to the iron founderies in England, which had risen by individual enterprise alone, an act of parliament was passed in 1769 for discontinuing, upon the exportation of iron in foreign ships, the drawbacks of such parts of the duties payable thereon, as exceeded the duties payable upon iron imported in British ships. In this year the importation of iron from Russia alone, amounted to upwards of 34,000 tons. To such an extent, through the fostering care first given by Peter the Great, had the iron mines arrived in Russia, that they materially injured the sale of the Swedish, from whence much less than a century before they used to import into Russia: such are the effects to be produced, when governments wisely patronize national objects of improvement and industry.

The American war breaking out, that formidable rival to our iron-trade was at an end; soon after the close of that war, the increase of our trade, and the extension of our manufactures, created an additional consumption of iron in the country, and although we had powerful competitors in Russia and in Sweden,

yet our founderies were producing an annual increase by manufacturing iron with pit coal instead of wood, as heretofore. Before that method was discovered, only 18000 tons of iron could be produced in these kingdoms; Ireland had already exhausted all her wood for that purpose.

The use of pit-coal charred had occasionally been tried for making pig and bar iron, and was first used by a person of the name of Dudley, in Staffordshire, who then made some good iron by that method; but the prejudice against it was so great, that it was laid aside, from the want of better knowledge at that time in the proper management; nor was it till about forty years ago, that the attempt was again successfully revived by the respectable company of Colebrook Dale, in Salop, who matured the process, and brought it to perfection. From this epoch we must date the solid establishment of our iron-founderies in this country, which have since increased rapidly. Many people of property began great schemes of iron-works, in various parts of Great Britain, for making pig and bar iron with pit-coal.

It is stated in 1783, that Ireland made but little bar iron, and that her importation had increased one-third in ten years. The average quantity of iron imported into Ireland for three years ending the 25th March, 1773, was

From Russia and Sweden	3734 tons.
From Great Britain	2217
	—
	5951 tons.

Average of three years ending the 25th of March, 1783.

From Russia and Sweden	4924 tons.
From Great Britain	3736
	—
	8660 tons.

Some founderies were likewise established in Ireland. In the course of nineteen years we find little variation in the quantity of iron imported into Ireland either foreign or British.

For the year ending the 5th January, 1802,

Russian, Swedish, Danish, and foreign iron	4941 tons.
British	4512
	—
	9453 tons.

Iron and hardware rated at £.138,941.

Amongst other curious calculations, in the year 1783, iron is estimated in what we imported and made from its rough state, through all its various manufactured branches, to be of the value of £. 8,700,000; greatest part of which may be reckoned labour; indeed it is astonishing to see this branch extended to so great an extent in so short a period; not so much in the rough material as the hardware manufactures at Birmingham and other places, but particularly at Sheffield, so famous for cutlery, when the first knives made in England, was by one Thomas Mathews, of London, in the year 1563, when we imported the greatest part of our manufactured requisites from Flanders and other countries.

It is, however, only within the last ten years, that the iron founderies in these kingdoms have had such a rapid and almost incredible rise: two circumstances have not a little contributed to give us a firm footing in this valuable branch, and that will be seen under the head of Russia; from the government of that country having made a loan bank to accommodate the Russian iron masters, by advancing money on the security of the iron, to compel the English to give them such price as they demanded, and the last, the detention of the British ships and property in the year 1800, which gave a wonderful animation to every capitalist in the iron trade to embark in this lucrative branch; and in every part of the kingdom we now see such establishments, so that we may now bid farewell to Russia iron, excepting the CCND.

But the grand increase of iron is in Wales, where, forty years past, no iron was produced, in whose extensive mountains are discovered inexhaustible mines of iron ore, with an unequalled and happy advantage of fuel at the same time. When the Irish propositions were before parliament, about twenty years ago, it was then calculated that Great Britain made about 30,000 tons of bar iron; but such has been the increase within the last ten years, that Wales alone produces considerably beyond that quantity, and where two companies who have establishments in London, at this period produce about 18000 tons of bar iron annually. About seven years ago, the result of an inquiry, instituted by government, was then calculated to be 125 furnaces in Great Britain, supposed to produce 130000 tons of pig iron; this quantity, by those who have the best means of being informed in the trade, is supposed to be doubled, if not near 300000 tons throughout the kingdom, in pig, cast, and bar iron; of the last, from 80 to 100000 tons: the whole quantity is almost incredible, but our surprise may cease when

we see the uses to which pig or cast iron is now applied for all domestic and other purposes of almost every description. In the neighbourhood of Leeds, even buildings without wood, but iron in its place, to the very window frames, joists, and rafters; upon which plan a very large building is at this time erecting near Bristol, on the Bath road. Railways, pipes, and aqueducts are now formed of cast iron, and indeed every purpose, even to the building of bridges, the structures of two of which, one at Colebrøke Dale, and the other at Sunderland, are monuments of national genius and enterprise not to be equalled by any description in history. The British made bar iron is manufactured at this time at so low a rate as to be sold on the quay at Bristol at little above £.14 per ton; before the present war with France, cargoes of iron in various states were shipped from hence to that country; hoops made of English iron, from its improved manufacture, (which till lately were always made of foreign), are now sent to Portugal, Maderia, the Mediterranean, as well as British bar iron to Africa, the East Indies, and Ireland, and no doubt it will soon become an article of traffic for America and the whole world, if no casualty nor measures of burthen are laid upon it, as the duty on foreign iron and the high price extorted for it abroad, act as a bounty, which, it is hoped, will be continued till our manufacture is completely secured. The export is rapidly on the rise, which will be demonstrated by the following official value, at the custom-house, on the exportation of British bar iron.

1797	.	.	.	.	.	£.13178
1798	.	.	.	.	.	18888
1799	.	.	.	.	.	26902
1800	.	.	.	.	.	28514
1801	.	.	.	.	.	30018
1802	.	.	.	.	.	54969
1803	.	.	.	.	.	53304

likewise the British iron, wrought, cast, and manufactured into various articles, in the following years:

1797	.	.	.	.	.	£.1067691
1798	.	.	.	.	.	1069290
1799	.	.	.	.	.	1488074
1800	.	.	.	.	.	1570820
1801	.	.	.	.	.	1417715
1802	.	.	.	.	.	1616204
1803	.	.	.	.	.	1218038

Notwithstanding the almost incredibly rapid increase in the production of our own iron, within the last seven years, it must appear rather astonishing, that we import so much foreign iron; but this will cease, when we consider our extended foreign commerce, and the prejudice in favour of using foreign iron yet amongst our ship-builders, anchor-smiths, and throughout the navy, as well as for various other purposes. This has caused the foreign iron trade in Great Britain to stand thus, during the last seven years, being the official value, from the custom-house, of the imports and exports of foreign iron:

Years.	Imported.	Exported.	Balance.
1797	£.361322	83301	£.278021
1798	507840	62844	444996
1799	472732	90604	382128
1800	374949	66775	308174
1801	326609	53191	273418
1802	517269	87822	429447
1803	425205	47471	377734

So that, upon an average, we have for the above seven years consumed, in Great Britain, about 43,000 tons of foreign iron annually, which, in its absolute first cost to the individuals, and of course, loss to the nation, is upwards of 700,000*l.* sterling per annum, which we could instantly produce at home, with infinitely greater facility than any other branch of manufacture we have in the kingdom, and at a considerable less price than we are paying for foreign iron; and, although it is said, we must have some of the very best sorts of foreign iron for particular purposes in our manufactures, it is well known that we can make as good iron in this country, with charcoal, for those particular purposes, as any we can import; to be sure, it will cost a little more; but, why not encourage our own manufacture? Why should not the navy and every other department, use British made iron, when foreigners already begin, not only to take it, but prefer it.

The Swedish iron is indeed of a superior quality, the materials from which it is made being of the best sort, it is manufactured with skill and care, and formed, with an attention very much to be commended, into all the sizes that are most generally wanted in a material applied to such a variety of purposes, and which is not altered in its form, without considerable labour and difficulty.

Of Russia iron there is now only one or two fabrics, which will be imported at all into this country in a short time.

It is to the great use of machinery that we owe, in this country, a superiority; for here, art has completely got the better of natural advantages. The process of making iron, in its first stages, is chiefly chymical: it is by the action of fire on the materials, and so far the Swedes have still the advantage; but to convert iron from this rude and nearly useless state into malleable bars, is an operation performed by mechanical means, and where great force alone can produce any great effect; nor is it sufficient to have rude machinery badly contrived and ill executed, there the friction is great, and the effect produced small. It is in this we excel so much, at least in the proportion of seven to one;* for making iron is a more profitable business in England than in Sweden, notwithstanding the natural advantages enjoyed by that country in respect to the business of making iron.

We do not surpass the Swedes in skill in the nature and properties of iron, but in capital and mechanical means.

That some of our iron ore is equal to any in the world, there is no doubt; but it varies in every district here as in other countries, yet the experienced and the well informed in this country, say that English iron is, by nature, softer than any foreign we have imported, except Spanish; when worked with wood, no iron is so tough as Russia, and the English iron can be made equally as tough; it certainly is not esteemed so much, when made by cokes of pit coal, but there is a much greater waste of metal in the process; still very great quantities, of excellent quality, are made with pit coal only, and the iron made with wood charcoal is for particular purposes.

Cast iron wares bear, for exportation, no comparison to bar iron and articles made from it; but the internal consumption for rail roads, railings, bridges, rafters for house, and, in short, every other purpose, in objects every moment presenting them-

* Making iron	In England.	In Sweden.
Materials for a ton in decimal parts of its value	10	2
Fire, smelting, and labour	35	8
Forging and converting into bars of malleable iron	55	80
	90	90

But this 80 in Sweden, on account of the value of money being four times as great, makes it appear that, first, on account of the proportion of 4 to 1, and then of 80 to 55, the real difference is nearly as 7 to 1. This may not be unexceptionably accurate as a calculation, but the basis is right; it states the nature of the case as it really stands, which is what is intended, and what is useful.

selves to our sight, is such that the quantity may be increased still more; surely, this is the most flattering prospect for the resources of the kingdom, and may be deemed amongst the first, for it is an article added to the capital of the country, produced by the labour of its people only, from that which costs nothing, and is inexhaustible in the bowels of our native soil.

In the iron trade, the spirit and energy of those who carry it on, is such, that government has not any occasion to interfere with bounties or premiums. The unwise policy of the northern nations in raising the prices, answers every purpose, so that though they have, in reality, according to the wages of labour and value of money, a price equal to three times what we have, they never think of increasing their industry and underselling us, but take always the highest price they can get. When nations act upon the principle of high prices, the consequence is, that others, when the article is such as they can produce, take as little from them as possible, and endeavour to supply themselves; and, as soon as they are able to do so, they import no more from those avaricious unwise people; when, on the contrary, nations, where the value of money is great, can undersell and do so, then others take from them all they can get, and only manufacture for themselves enough to supply the deficiency. Thus it is, that if Sweden and Russia had kept the prices as low as they were 20 years ago, we should take from them all we could, and only make enough at home to supply the deficiency; but, as it is, we make all we can, and our works are daily increasing, while we take from them only enough to satisfy the demand which we are not yet able to do ourselves.

Our iron masters may, however, export that when those countries find we will not purchase any more from them, they will reduce the price, which it is in their power very easily to do: it will then become the business of the legislature to protect our home manufactures of iron, by a duty that will compensate for the reduction of price that they will make, so soon as they find that they must either do that, or lose the market.

So firmly is the iron manufacture established in this country, and so greatly extending, that we shall shortly be general exporters; indeed, British bar iron might now be exported to Sweden and Russia at less prices, including freight and insurance, than they insisted upon having a few years back, in the first cost, from us. Last year, the importation of iron into Britain, from Russia, was not a fifth of the preceding year, so that the iron proprietors of Russia will have to lament extorting such high prices from the English, and struggling so hard to

have a Loan Bank to enforce. They will be as the Swedes were a century ago with pitch and tar.

It would be a pity to quit this subject without observing how much the prosperity of nations depends on wise policy, which is always connected with moderation, and paying due attention to circumstances; by due attention, we mean neither negligence on the one hand, nor being too eager to grasp on the other. In the time of Louis XIV. when Colbert was minister, we have seen how France, by being too tenacious, lost the superiority in the manufacture of watches, glass, paper, and cutlery, and many other articles. Sweden, using similar power about pitch and tar, lost that trade, and the northern powers follow still the same measures, excluding English manufactures, and keeping up the price of their own. England seized wisely, and with success, the moment to rival France and Sweden; let her do so now with iron, fisheries, and every thing else that the circumstances will admit, and she will place her prosperity on a basis much more certain and permanent than that on which it now stands.

CHAPTER VIII.

Of Hemp and Flax.

WE cannot well treat of these two articles separately, they are frequently applied to the same, as well as to different purposes; their growth is as nearly connected, as well as the uses to which they are respectively applied.

That the use of flax has long been known, we need only refer to sacred history, where we find that the use of the distaff and spindle, in those early times, was counted laudable industry. Naturalists say that there are no less than 33 known species of flax; but all seem to agree, that only two of these were formerly used in the flax manufacture, but we believe it confined now only to one, which obtains a degree of fineness proportioned to the soil and its cultivation.

Hemp scarcely appears to have been known to the ancients, at least as a strong fibred plant; for Pliny, in lib. 20, cap. 23, of his Natural History, only praises the virtues of its stem, leaves, and roots. We find, however, from some who have written on Roman antiquities, that the hemp, necessary for the use of war, was stored up in two cities of the western empire, Ravenne and Vienne, by the procurators. That its use soon after became general, admits of no doubt. Although we find frequent account of seal skins, and other articles, substituted for hempen cables, even in the eighth century; it was not, however, till the sixteenth century, that it became an object of public consideration in England; the first of which we find is the 21st year of Henry VIII. chap. 12, in a petition for regulating

rope making at Bridport, in Dorsetshire, which states, "that, whereas the people of that town have, out of time that no man's mind is to the contrary, used to make most part of all the great cables, hawsers, ropes, and all other tackling, as well for your royal ships and navy as for the most part of all other ships within this realm, by reason whereof your said town was right well maintained, &c." Then comes the grievances, viz. "that the people of the adjacent parts of this town have set up rope-making, and make slight goods, whereby," says this act, "the prices of the said cables, &c. are greatly enhanced," a very odd reason, truly, for enhancing a commodity!

Curious reasons in these times were given for monopolies foreign to the present matter, but the petitioners succeeded, and gained an exclusive privilege. At this period, no cordage is made at that place, except for its own shipping; but its manufactures for fishing lines, twines for nets, the manufacturing of sail cloth, dowlas, ticks, &c. are carried on to some extent, and considerable quantities of flax, and some hemp, is grown in that neighbourhood, and in the adjacent counties.

When (at the early period we have just mentioned) the people directed their attention to nautical affairs, the use of hemp became indispensably necessary, and an object of great importance to government. At that time, the Russian trade was unknown to us, of course we had only supplies within ourselves; for, by an act in the 24th year of Henry VIII. chap. 4, and by another in the 5th year of Queen Elizabeth, chap. 5, the crown was empowered, by a proclamation, to order, that for every 60 acres of land for tillage, one rood should be sown with flaxseed or hempseed, as might be judged proper, "for the better provision of nets, for help and furtherance of fishing, and for eschewing of idleness."

At various subsequent periods, many attempts were made to grow hemp and flax amongst ourselves. After the discovery of the trade to Russia, from 1553 to 1696, the trade was but inconsiderable with that empire; yet, in the 7th and 8th of King William and Queen Mary, an act was passed to encourage the growth of hemp and flax in Ireland, and the importation from thence into England duty free, "On account of the great quantity of money which was sent out of the country:" when, in the year 1699, an act passed, that the commissioners of customs should, in every year, give an account of all the naval stores imported from Russia into England.

Many laws were made, and bounties given, to encourage the growth of hemp and flax from that period till 1776, in the

British plantations in America, as well as at home; all which had but little effect in promoting its growth; although, additional duties were laid on foreign linens, to encourage British manufacture and the growth of these two articles; in 1781, an act was passed, allowing the importation of flax and flaxseed into Great Britain and Ireland, in any ship in amity with his majesty, which act is continued to this day.

A bounty was granted of 4*l.* per ton on all hemp, the growth of Ireland, imported into England, from 24th June, 1793, to 24th June, 1800, which has not been renewed, and the bounty of 4*l.* per ton on all hemp and flax, the growth of the British plantations in America, imported into England, will cease on the 24th June, 1806. These bounties were granted by government in a manner, which gave but little stimulus, and were found ineffectual; the land owners gave but little encouragement, to urge vigorous measures to second the view; indeed, the land owners, as well as the farmers, were prejudiced against it, from the notion that it impoverished the soil, and wished to grow those articles, where it was not exactly suitable for corn; but they might be influenced partly from prejudice and the extra trouble of cultivating hemp and flax, although attended with more profit than the production of grain. They do not consider, however, that their people might be employed in preparing hemp and flax, when they could not employ their time in other occupations.

As interest generally leads men to pursue what is most beneficial, so the boors of Russia, where the soil and climate allow it, prefer the culture of hemp and flax to corn, not only as most profitable, but as best suiting their habits and time; it is sown, raised, pulled, put in the water and ready for heckling in a short time, with the advantage of a certain ready money market, when prepared. This is not the case always with grain, which is more precarious in every point. When the Russian has done every thing the season allows him in the out-door business, when he cannot turn himself to any purposes of agriculture he can heckle his hemp and flax, and prepare it for market in its raw state, or manufacture it.

Notwithstanding such an immense quantity of hemp and flax is exported, as well as consumed at home, neither of those articles are grown in any great quantities by any individual in general; every boor grows a patch of hemp and flax, and what he does not require for his own domestic purposes, he sells to those people going round to collect it, or bringing it to dealers in the villages, who traffic in the articles of necessity he requires.

It will be seen that, some years, we have imported upwards of 20,000 tons of flax, nearly 38,000 tons of hemp, and 4000 tons of raw linen yarn, spun from flax, and about that weight in manufactured linens; of linseed we must go by the value.

As we have stated the quantity, we shall take the aggregate value of the hemp and flax, and their produce imported in the raw state, according to the official value, for the following years.

	1797	1798	1799	1800	1801	1802	1803
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Hemp	414794	550658	639685	506956	636267	406066	613494
Flax	401371	766196	828401	804938	530328	529973	575123
Yarn	359541	440679	525367	505978	423214	417829	375398
Linseed	88452	102413	105170	131697	84191	132752	116877
	1264158	1809946	2098623	1949569	1674000	1486620	1680892
Of which only exptd. Hemp	6940	26302	9065	8032	6094	45919	6898
£.	1257218	1783644	2089558	1941537	1667906	1440701	1673994

Such is the official value which the nation pays for all these articles, and this rate, we have before observed, was fixed at a very early period; compared with the present, some articles are doubled, some trebled, and, in some instances, quadrupled.

To the quantity of the raw articles thus imported, we shall add likewise that which came in a manufactured state, which cannot come in any where with so much propriety as here. The foreign linens consumed in Great Britain alone, may be about 4000 tons in weight on the average, but being estimated in the value of linens, it is not here added; but the cordage made of hemp, imported into Great Britain, was, in the following years:

Year.	England.	Scotland.	Total cwt.
1789	cwt. 1183	349	1532
1790	2184	444	2628
1791	2568	673	3241
1792	2078	487	2565
1793	3002	449	3451
1794	2654	319	2973
1795	5778	235	6013
1796	18247	797	19044
1797	6144	446	6590
1798	6671	1499	8170
1799	6623	1147	7770
1800			

The actual sums, upon the average of the last five years, which this country has paid for hemp and flax, and their produce, will be more clearly seen in the concluding chapter, where the estimated national advantages of raising these raw materials amongst ourselves are shewn.

If this should not be attempted in England, it can easily be effected in Ireland, the soil, climate, and situation of that kingdom are peculiarly adapted for such an object; Ireland already raises all the flax she consumes in her manufactures, and having already got into the habit of raising and dressing flax, that of hemp would be the more easily introduced.

The production of flax has kept pace with the increased state of her linen manufacture. The importation of flaxseed, flax, and hemp, was, on the average of seven years,

From 1764 to 1770, flaxseed	31809 hogsheads.
flax	15608 cwt.
hemp	16243 do.
From 1771 to 1777, flaxseed	33050 hogsheads.
flax	9322 cwt.
hemp	14590 do.

Ireland imported in the year 1801, flaxseed	53855 hhd.
flax	5661 cwt.
hemp	8269 do.
hempseed	227 hhd.

The importation, both of hemp and flax into Ireland, has considerably declined, which is an evident proof of some progress being made in the production of those articles; as the people have partially got into the habit of raising them already. From the suitableness of the soil and climate, this will ultimately occupy and employ the poor, who are in the most wretched and deplorable state, for want of means to employ their industry. The country at present is neglected, and requires some vigilant measures to bring its great resources into activity.

The linen manufacture in Ireland is like the cloth manufacture in the West Riding of the county of York, and the county of Gloucester; rather local; when the producing of hemp and flax might be general throughout the kingdom; that it is not

so in Ireland, even, is notorious. The importation of flaxseed was only into the following ports of Ireland :

	In 1803
Belfast	6172
Coleraine	—
*Cork	5017
Donaghadee	30
Dublin	6850
Dundalk	128
Galway	2415
Limerick	1344
Londonderry	13047
Newport	466
Newry	12713
Sligo	1796
Strangford	288
Waterford	1
	50264

If, then, within the manufacturing district of so small a compass we reckon that the above quantity of seed is sown annually in Ireland ; and, in addition, perhaps some of the best seed which may have been saved the year previous from their own growth, we may calculate upon the whole from 60,000 to 70,000 hogsheads of flaxseed are sown. The hogshead contains more than three bushels, which is sown on an acre ; reckoning, therefore, only 60,000 acres of land sown with flax, (which, most probably, is under the fact), and the produce from 6 to 7 and 8 cwt. per acre ; as the domestic consumption is considerable, besides what is used in the manufacture for exportation, it is an evident proof what may be done in that kingdom.

If, therefore, Ireland confines herself to so small a compass as 60,000 acres, just in her manufacturing neighbourhood, let us compare the extent of that kingdom, to see what advantages it may be productive of to herself, and in a national point of view, by making it general.

The province of Ulster has	2,836,837 acres.
Leinster	2,642,958
Munster	3,289,932
Connaught	2,272,915
	11,042,642

* It is only very lately that Cork imported any seed.

It must be remarked that the above measure is Irish acres, which make about 18,000,000 of English statute acres; and it may not be improper to observe here, that a general error arises in those who know not the difference betwixt the English and Irish measure, as well as the respective rate of money, in judging of the price or rental of land. Betwixt the two countries, the difference of the measure and the rate of money is, that 40s. per acre in Ireland will be equal to about 23s. per acre in England: so that we find the rent of land considerably lower in Ireland than in England, and in England it is much less than in Scotland. The tythes and poor's rates of England chiefly make the difference. What must tend to forward the object materially of sowing hemp and flax in Ireland, is, that there are no rights of commonage as in England, there are bogs, which only want draining, and waste lands of very considerable extent, dispersed throughout the kingdom, capable of the highest cultivation and most profitable husbandry, adapted for grain, hemp, and flax.

Comparing Ireland to England, acre for acre, in natural fertility, perhaps Ireland has the advantage. It is the capital and higher state of cultivation in England which gives her the decided superiority. There is not in all Ireland, where it can be cultivated, such wastes as are to be seen in England.—Look at the northern parts of Yorkshire, and the line from Westmoreland, then Lancashire, down into Derbyshire, an extent of near a hundred miles.

Hemp requires a different soil from flax; in Ireland it is found peculiarly to suit both; this is stated from observation, as well as from the high authority of Mr. Arthur Young, who has given such comprehensive details of the soil of that kingdom. This gentleman gives the most flattering testimonies of the ease with which bogs might be drained: and, wherever any proprietors have partially done so, that it has most amply repaid them. No meadows are found equal to those gained by improving a bog, which, when properly drained and cultivated, the natural vegetation is rich and productive, and of such a particular quality, that even sheep have never been found to rot upon them; but, on the contrary, considerably improved: and, in travelling through Ireland, where the road is made through a bog or swamp, grass and clover may be observed to grow in abundance at the sides of the road, there is a fine, rich, friable soil, when drained, similar to the soil of the Ukraine, where the finest hemp from Russia and Poland is produced. No island is better watered, has finer rivers, nor could have such

easy navigable communication, both externally and internally, as Ireland; advantages united together of the highest importance, both for its exterior trade and fisheries, as well as the internal improvement. The grand canal runs from Dublin to the Shannon, through the bog of Allen, (one of the greatest in Ireland), estimated to contain 300,000 acres; and there are many others of less extent scattered over the kingdom; some of which might be drained at a small expense; but, if the proprietors have not capital sufficient to carry on such extensive improvements, it would be wisdom in government to facilitate the object by advancing the necessary sums, upon mortgage of the lands, in the shape of exchequer bills; the interest to be paid regularly every half year to government, or chargeable upon the estate; the whole to be repaid by the proprietors, or redeemed in a certain time, either by the currency of the country, or by payment in produce itself, in a certain quantity annually, of hemp and flax, at fixed rates, for the discharge of interest and capital. By this means the grand national object would soon be accomplished without expense to the public; nothing would contribute so essentially to the prosperity of the country and of the individual: it would, first, by reclaiming those bogs, and cultivating the waste land, encourage the growth of hemp and flax, and employ all the wretched poor and industrious of the kingdom, keeping those at home who otherwise emigrate for want of employment; such measures would surely be the means of creating riches and happiness in Ireland.

For want of some such encouragement, Ireland is unable to employ its population: the loss to the state, by emigration, and the neglect by not bringing into active effect those dormant resources, is really incalculable; for near sixty years past, an emigration from Ireland has existed of the most athletic and useful hands, and so systematically carried on, without any measures of restraint, that what is called a passenger trade, has been like a branch of commerce, for carrying them direct to America. By accounts from thence, from 1803, to July 1804, no less than 27,000 Irish had emigrated; what then must have been the emigration altogether from Ireland? This is indeed a national loss of the greatest importance, when men are so much wanted, and a description of men who would not, certainly, leave their native soil, if they could get employment; but they have no means of exercising their industry, nor have they poor's rates to keep them from starvation, as in England. Give the lower class of Irish but the means of labour, and let them once taste the sweets of their own industry, we shall in time see them follow the laudable example of those in Scotland.

From many reasons, of the soundest and wisest policy, (besides even humanity for which we are so celebrated), we should prevent emigration, and give employment to the poor, particularly when putting into effect a plan of this kind is attended with such immense national advantages. Wherever there is labour in Ireland, the people will flock to it, there are no parish officers as there are in England to check a man in search of labour, (if he cannot get it in his own district), least he should leave a wife and children chargeable to the parish. In Ireland, where they can find labour, a poor man in a day or two constructs a hut for his wife and children in the neighbourhood of the place where he can be employed; as it declines in one place, he removes to another where he can find it; his food is simple, and if he can labour and purchase milk and potatoes, the family repast is complete. If therefore they are deprived of employ, and cannot have parochial relief, the only alternative is starvation or emigration. In the course of twelve months, in which the author travelled in Russia, Poland, Germany, Holland, Flanders, and France, he resolved to visit (as he did within that period) Ireland, never having been in that kingdom, when, to his surprise, he found greater distress amongst the lower class than had any where been seen, and this in the midst of greater resources than almost any of those other countries enjoy.

As we have pointed out the national advantages to be derived by the soil and climate, in creating a spirit of improvement in Ireland, by ameliorating the state of the poor, we will return to those means which may be adopted to bring into national effect their productive industry, in raising hemp and flax.

The low lands might be made to produce the quantity of hemp we consume, therefore those and other swamps and low lands might be selected of most suitable soils, that could the soonest be rendered productive with the least expense, which are numerous throughout the kingdom.

The quality of flax varies according to the nature, and higher or less cultivated state of the soil; that that of Ireland is suitable admits of no doubt; there must be a great variety. Mr. A. Young observes, that "the tracts of desert mountains are very
" considerable; upon these are to be practised the most profit-
" able husbandry in the king's dominions; for so I am persuaded
" the improvement of mountain land to be. By that expression
" is not to be understood only very high lands, all wastes in
" Ireland, that are not bogs, they call mountain; so that you
" hear of land under that denomination, where even a hillock

“ is not to be seen. The longest tracts however are adjoining
 “ to real mountains, especially where they slope to a large ex-
 “ tent gradually to the south.”

Here then are sufficient means to raise all the flax necessary in Great Britain; 80,000 acres would raise as much as we import: and when we can raise what we want, either for manufactures or consumption, we need not to propose to become exporters of the raw material of our own growth.

Bounties are perhaps the only means for inducing individuals to raise such crops on lands already occupied; but new lands, granted for cultivation, may have a clause in the title, compelling the proprietors to raise hemp and flax on certain proportions; nor could this be burthensome, as one-fiftieth portion of good land now laying idle would do the business; and a condition, that only attached to one-fiftieth at a time, could never be felt upon the whole. If a proper board was established of liberal, upright, active, and experienced men, the business would be effected very speedily. This country has always displayed an uncommon backwardness, in availing herself of such useful establishments; even our staple manufactory of woollen arose from a single loom, and was in a manner at first forced upon us. Queen Catharine, in 1509, could not have a salad without sending to the Netherlands for a gardener to raise it; and no country now furnishes garden stuff in greater perfection or plenty, why not then hemp and flax?

There is a farther consideration to be added to the others, relating to the encouragement which ought to be given to Ireland, and which is of no small importance to us, as a maritime nation, that, by growing the hemp and flax in Ireland, we do not diminish the employment of our shipping, the same quantity of tonnage will be required to be employed, as has hitherto been in importing those articles from other quarters, and it may be looked upon as a valuable nursery for seamen; besides, our merchants will have the same means of employing their capital with greater security to themselves, and to the national advantage; it will be keeping that balance at home we are sending abroad, and which Ireland would embrace: it would give a new and pleasant aspect to the face of that country, and it would be adding great resources to the strength and security of the empire, not so much in the value as in the importance of the articles. In the first place, in respect to the grand sinews of our navy, we should be independent of all other nations; and, in the next, that we might reckon the advantages to be derived by the raw state of the articles. Ireland, so late

as the year 1759, had a surplus in her treasury of 65774*l*. it may be well for that kingdom that our bounties did not operate in America, at an early period, from what has happened betwixt America and Great Britain; it shews that our true policy is to have our resources as much under our wings as possible.

In the event of government resolving to raise hemp and flax amongst ourselves, certain fixed rules should be made by act of parliament at the first: being partly a new branch the most approved methods and maxims should be adopted. The habit once fixed amongst the people, it will continue and improve; good cordage, and good cloth depend upon the quality and the management of the hemp and flax;* for, in viewing the quality of flax from the different countries, we may discover the state of the soil on which it grows, and the management of it after. The flax in Flanders, the finest in the world, for making cambrics and laces, is not only managed in a certain manner, but the soil is prepared in a particular way, they consequently produce the finest flax; the Dutch come next; that from Russia is the coarsest, which arises from indifference to those maxims which the others observe.

The bounty given some years ago, by government, on hemp and flax, produced no visible effect in increasing the growth. The manner in which those bounties were directed to be claimed rendered them as ineffectual as those for encouraging our home fisheries. The bounty on hemp and flax was only claimable in its marketable state, and then not until actually sold; it followed of course that, when the grower had the misfortune of a failing crop, and needed collateral aid the most, he derived little or none from the bounty; and when he had a good crop, and needed no such assistance, he received it; and at all times it came too late. This, and authenticating the claims, and the difficulty of obtaining the bounty, owing to the many forms required, gave many of the growers so much disgust, that numbers never claimed the bounty at all. Whatever field or ground is sown with hemp or flax should be certified by the minister and church-wardens, or elders of the parish, when the occupier should be paid the bounty; for it is enough that he sustains the loss of his seed and his labour, if the crop should chance to fail.

* Mr. Wifflett, clerk to the committee of warehouses of the East India Company, has published very useful details relative to the culture of hemp and flax, from which much useful information may be gained.

It is not to Ireland, but to the country at large, that the great benefit will arise.

Before the advantages to the empire are summed up, (if we produce all the hemp and flax we consume), we must notice one article, the seed of the hemp; it is an article of exportation in Russia, in its natural state; when extracted into oil the latter amounts to near 200000*l.* per annum. In the year 1803, the quantity exported from thence was near 8500 tons. This oil is pressed by the boors in the most simple manner, in small hand mills, and sent to market. They generally reckon 180*lb.* of seed to produce 36*lb.* of clear oil, which is nearly five English gallons; and, in this country, it is generally reckoned that an acre of hemp will produce betwixt two and three quarters.

When we come to calculate the small quantity of land, which will give so great a benefit as to produce the quantity of hemp and flax we import, it is quite astonishing that this has not been put into effect; for, reckoning the quantity each acre will produce, on the most moderate calculation, which is five hundred weight per acre, then 112 acres of land would produce 28000 tons of flax, and 160000 acres would produce 40000 tons of hemp,—being together 272000 acres; and if the three kingdoms contain about 74000000 acres, and if the acts of Henry and Elizabeth were put in force, or rather extended, that is, two roods for every 60 acres of arable and pasture land, and allowing only half the quantity of land in the three kingdoms to be susceptible of such cultivation, it would make about 300,000 acres, which, in the change of crops, would be nothing to the aggregate quantity of land to raise flax or hemp, which are reckoned the best preparatives for a good crop of wheat.

We shall now consider the benefit which the nation would derive from such a plan being carried into execution; let us suppose the greatest quantity of hemp, flax, and linseed, that we have imported, that if they had been grown here, what they would have produced according to the average first cost paid, the last five years, for them, to which must be added the customs, freight, and insurance paid amongst ourselves. The hempseed would become a new source, the national advantage will then be thus, by producing, instead of importing:

Raw flax for spinning and manufacturing	}	20000 tons at	£. 65	£. 1300000
—— spinning into yarn, for which no labour is reck.		4000 — —	65	260000
—— in the weight of linens imported (as if the raw material was reckoned)		4000 — —	65	260000
Hemp rough, including cordage and other manufactures	}	400000 — —	40	1600000
Linseed		336000 quar.	40s.	672000
Hempseed*		400000 —	20s.	400000
				£. 4492000

A small part of this sum, annually appropriated to bring the waste lands into cultivation, would not only produce us grain to supply ourselves, but hemp and flax; and, by making a continued change in the crops, 300,000 acres annually appropriated for raising the two last articles out of the 22,000,000 to be cultivated in England only, if we did not encourage the growth in Ireland, would answer every purpose.

In the growth of hemp and flax we produce two of the most useful materials, either for the usual comforts of life or for defence; and the best, we may almost say the only, materials on which the poor, the feeble, and those who are now a burthen on the public, can be employed. A material, also, serving to occupy, profitably and well, many persons who would otherwise be idle, though they are not indigent, for one of the wisest of kings, in the earliest ages, celebrates “the industrious matron, who assorted her household, whose husband is seated, clothed in linen, amongst honourable men, and who giveth out the cloth, the work of her hands, to the merchant.” It is a material raised within ourselves, and therefore not liable to be taken from us by the vicissitudes to which nations, as well as individuals, are liable.

* The duty for importing hempseed from America, in a British ship, is about 7d. per quarter, and from any other place, 13s. 7d.!!

CHAPTER IX.

Of the British Linen Manufacture. Of the Quantity exported from Ireland. Exposed for Sale in Scotland. Foreign imported. Of the Cotton Manufacture.

THE linen manufacture was one of the first in ancient times; it is mentioned very early in the Holy Writ, when purple and fine linen was reckoned the highest personal ornament; and the greatest characters in those ages both wove and spun. Hercules made love to a spinster and assisted in her labours, and Penelope's web is known to every one.

It is certain that the linen manufacture came first from Egypt into Phœnicia, and then into Greece and Italy. The woollen may be reckoned chiefly as one to guard the body against the inclemency of the weather: linen has always been reckoned rather a luxury; and, as society has become more civilized and refined, linen has come more into general use, not contributing more to the comfort of the body than to cleanliness and health.

In early ages its benefits were known, particularly in warm climates, and a great value set upon fine linen. The celebrated Roman lady, Lullia Paulina, when she was dressed out in jewels, exceeding the value of £.322,000, gave three thousand pounds sterling for a single piece of fine linen.

Even at the end of the 11th century, it is mentioned by Helmoldus, that at the small island of Rugen, in the Baltic, linen cloth was used at that time in exchange for every thing, instead of money. He says, "If they got by chance any gold or silver by their piracies, or in war, they either bestowed it in ornaments for their wives, or laid it up in the treasury of their idol god." The times are, however, somewhat altered, with respect to the use of linen, but gold and silver have now become the idols.

From Italy, the linen manufacture went to France, from thence to Flanders, where it made a stand; afterwards to Hol-

land; from Flanders we received it, as well as the Germans; and it has spread at a very late period from thence to the east and northern parts of Europe. In encouraging the woollen manufacture, at an early period, some attention was paid to that of linen. King Henry III. in the 37th year of his reign, ordered the sheriffs of Wilts and Sussex to buy, for his wardrobe, at Westminster, one thousand ells of fine linen, made in each of their respective counties.

When Cardinal Wolsey's goods were seized by Henry VIII. amongst other articles were found one thousand pieces of fine Holland linen; a proof that the manufacture was not carried to much perfection in this country; and, by the enormous provision of it, that it was not readily to be had; for, in the inventory, we do not find woollen cloth, that being a manufacture established here long before; and probably that could be purchased when wanted. One of the reasons, however, that linen makes a smaller figure, as an article of commerce, is, that most of it is home made; that is, if not manufactured in the family, at least in the country. Garden stuffs cost more than tea and sugar; but there is a great difference between the importance of a refiner of sugar and a man who raises cucumbers and cabbages. The same reason makes cotton spinners rise superior to the simple country girl who spins flax at the cottage door.

The reign of James I. was the first period for encouraging the linen manufacture by authority; from that time it was left to itself, till 1696, when an act passed which may be said to have been the foundation act for encouraging the manufacture of linens in Ireland. Hemp and flax the growth, and sail-cloth the manufacture of that kingdom, were all imported into England, duty free; and so far had the manufacturing of sail-cloth increased by this time, that the English manufacture was allowed to be exported duty free. The linen manufacture in Ireland was farther promoted by the French protestant refugees, and a sort of a compact made in 1698, when the English parliament addressed his majesty to discourage the woollen manufacture in Ireland, and to encourage that of the linen. An act, passed in 1704, by which Irish linens were allowed to be exported from any port in Ireland directly to the British plantations.

Sir William Temple, a strenuous advocate at an early period for promoting the Irish linen manufacture, foretold the great improvement in 1681; and, with some gallantry, made the following observations: "No women are apter to spin linen thread well than the Irish, who, labouring little in any kind with

“ their hands, have their fingers more suple and soft than other
 “ women of the poor condition amongst us. And this may cer-
 “ tainly be advanced and improved into a great manufacture of
 “ linen, so as to beat down the trade both of France and Hol-
 “ land, and draw much of the money which goes from England
 “ to those parts upon this occasion into the hands of his ma-
 “ jesty’s subjects of Ireland, without crossing any interest of
 “ trade in England ; for, beside what has been said of flax and
 “ spinning, in Ireland its climate is proper for whitening, both
 “ by the frequent brooks, and also of winds in that country.”

The encouragement given in England to the Irish linen ma-
 nufacture was most properly seconded by the Irish parliament ;
 and, to promote the linen manufacture, from its first encourage-
 ment, in 1696 to 1750, it is calculated that no less than half a
 million sterling was expended, which produced an immense in-
 crease in the manufacture. About the year 1691, it was sup-
 posed that Ireland did not export in yarn and linens to the
 amount of six thousand pounds altogether ; but the manufacture
 rapidly increased, as will appear when we compare the value of
 linen and yarn exported from Ireland ten years after ; viz.

	Yarn.	Linens.	Total.
In 1701 .	£.39000	£.14000	£.53000
1711 .	44000	78000	122000
1721 .	88000	126000	214000
1731 .	84000	220000	304000
1741 .	129000	480000	509000
1751 .	142000	751000	893000

Moderate as this quantity appears at the present day, it was
 found sufficient to create alarm among all the foreign linen ma-
 nufacturing countries at that time.

The progressive increase of the linen manufacture exported,
 together with yarn, will be seen by the following average, taken
 from the official value ; the cloth being reckoned at 1s. 3d. per
 yard, and the yarn at 1s. per lb.

LINEN CLOTH.			YARN.	
Average 7 yards.	No. of Yards.	Value.	Cwt.	Value.
1750 to 1756	11796361	745057	£.24328	£.145972
1757 to 1763	14511973	967445	33114	198690
1764 to 1770	17776862	1184171	32311	193861
1771 to 1777	20252239	1390919	31475	188810
In 1778	21945729	————	28108	————
1779	18836042	————	35678	————

In 1780, in consequence of the very able report of the then board of trade, drawn up, and laid before the right honourable the lords of the committee of council, appointed to consider the Irish bills, many judicious acts of parliament were made, to grant bounties, regulate and encourage every object tending to increase the linen manufacture of Ireland, which has been supported and protected by the Right Honourable J. Foster, who may justly be termed the guardian of the linen manufacture of Ireland. Under his auspices we find the very high pitch to which it is arrived, as the following statement of the exports from that country will prove.

Linen exported from Ireland from 1786, each Year, to the one ending 5th January, 1805.

	Years.	No. of Yards.
Ending 25th March	1786	28168666
	1787	30728728
	1788	35487691
	1789	29344633
	1790	37322125
	1791	39718706
	1792	45581669
	1793	43312057
	1794	43257764
	1795	42780804
	1796	46705319
	1797	36559746
	1798	33497171
	1799	38466289
	1800	35676908

The increase of the linen export trade from Ireland to other quarters, will be seen by stating first what she exported in the year ending 25th March, 1781, which was to the

East country	29612 yards.
Holland	67826
Spain and Portugal	108215
America	288973
West Indies	142099

And next, to shew, in a still stronger point of view, the increase of the Irish linen trade, not for home consumption, but

the exportation to foreign markets, and that we are getting into them, the following statement is given:

	1801 The Year ending the 5th January.	1802 The Year ending the 5th January.	1803 The Year ending the 5th January.	1804 The Year ending the 5th January.
Exported to Great Britain British colonies in Ame- rica and West Indies United States of America All other parts	Yards. 38270671 829206 1290405 165568	Yards. 34622829 671140 2518252 97709	Yards. 33246943 885956 1083623 395488	Yards. 35079936 486020 1870028 115870
Total of linen exported	40555850	37909930	35612010	37569854
Quantity exported on which bounty was paid	1282869	2231398	1418237	2058203
Total rated value of li- nen exported	£. s. d. 2707042 13 6	£. s. d. 2528519 2 2	£. s. d. 375441 6 6	£. s. d. 2505802 13 6
Value of linen on which bounty was paid	86431 5 4	148764 18 10	95152 7 0	138936 7 10

In the year ending the 5th of January, 1805, the exportation of linens from Ireland, to all parts, was 42,988,621 yards.

Scotland has not the advantage of soil, climate, nor the population of Ireland, but certainly excels it in industry and application, a stronger proof cannot be adduced, than that whilst Ireland was receiving extensive pecuniary aid to promote her linen manufacture, that of Scotland had got to so low an ebb, that the annual convention held at Edinburg, in July 1725, took it into their serious consideration, and, in the following year, several schemes and proposals for encouraging their fisheries and manufactures, were resolved upon, one of which was to petition his Majesty. The King, in return, was pleased to cause the Lord Advocate to lay before the Convention, in July, 1726, his Majesty's direction, stating the interest which his Majesty took in their solicitude to promote the general interests of the country.* A board of trustees, in 1727, was established for promoting the linen manufacture and extending the fisheries of Scotland according to an act of parliament. The very small pecuniary aid allowed was amply compensated by the laudable economy and judicious management of that board, which produced the most happy and beneficial effects in a very short period; insomuch, that we find linen stamped for sale in Scotland, the first year, being from the first November, 1727, to the 1st November,

		Yards.		Value.
1728	.	2183978	.	£. 103312 9 3
1729	.	3225155	.	114383 19 8
1730	.	3755622	.	131262 15 11

A sum of only 1500*l.* per annum was distributed in bounties for raising flax. 2000 acres were sown in 1733, which had an effect of encouraging the linen manufacture; so that after 1734, the average quantity of 10 years, manufactured for sale, was near 4,800,000 yards. In 1747, it began to wear a new aspect, so that it gradually increased, in consequence of the patriotic attention of individuals, and the board, which is a proof what individual exertion and united endeavours can do in a country. Betwixt the years 1757 and 1772, 225606*l.* or 14100*l.* per annum was paid by the Irish parliament to encourage the linen manufactures of Ireland, whilst that of Scotland had but very limited means: never, in any one year, exceeding 3000*l.* for that object and promoting the fisheries.

* The convention agreed upon an answer to this gracious communication, in which they expressed their joy to his majesty in the language of those times, "for his tender concern for the welfare of Scotland, which filled the hearts of the most knowing people with gratitude and loyalty."

The establishment of the British Linen Company, with a sufficient capital, was a salutary measure, because the needy manufacturer always found a market, which enabled him to keep his industry continually in activity; so that this linen manufacture gradually extended upon the whole, (with a little variation in some years), till it has arrived to the extent we now find it. The quantity exported from Ireland is stated each year since 1785. The following particulars each year for the same period, for Scotland, shews the quantity manufactured and exported for sale, which was, in

Years.	No. of Yards.	Value.
1785	17275075	£.835082
1786	17505375	823448
1787	19425031	843921
1788	20506311	854871
1789	20000195	779940
1790	18328257	729749
1791	18739725	755546
1792	21065386	842544
1793	20676620	757332
1794	20535633	797417
1795	21374196	827004
1796	23102404	906202
1797	19475241	735084
1798	21297059	850403
1799	24506007	1116022
1800	24235633	1047598
1801	25271870	1018642
1802	23803255	915104
1803	15890878	687692
1804	—————*	—————

The linen manufactures of Scotland are more particularly adapted for the West India market, and the falling off the last two years may partly be assigned to the precarious state of the trade in that quarter, and other causes which I shall shortly mention. The Irish manufacture has increased, being rather a finer quality than the Scotch linen. With these limited means of encouragement, and the many disadvantages Scotland labours under, not producing the raw material, (as in Ireland), upon her own soil, she becomes dependent upon a foreign supply, at all

* The exact account not received, but it is estimated that the number of yards, and the value, will be nearly about the same as the previous year.

times precarious and often high in price. Under these circumstances it is astonishing that it has risen to such an extent; nor can it be expected that Scotland can, from the nature of the soil, and the moderate extent of cultivation, raise the raw material in sufficient quantities for her consumption, it must either be raised in England, or Ireland, or imported from abroad. The quantity of the raw material imported into Scotland, will be seen in the preceding chapter.

When we have treated of the linen manufactures of Ireland and Scotland separately, it will be expected likewise that we should do so of England; but, in this branch, in the midst of her woollen and other various manufactures, but particularly cotton, that of linen has been almost neglected: instead of confining ourselves in our own consumption to the linen manufactures of Ireland and Scotland, vast quantities from Russia, Prussia, and Germany, have been imported into Great Britain, or rather to England exclusively.

The case seems to be, that in a wealthy country, where the value of money is low, as in England, it is not possible to enter into competition with labourers, who can live in cheap places, and do as much work as those who live in dear ones. Spinning and knitting stockings by hand, and other things that may be done at the foot of a mountain in Scotland or Wales, cannot be done in the same manner, and for the same price in London. It is not even thought an object of economy to employ spare time in such sort of labour.

Notwithstanding the heavy duties laid on the importation of foreign linens, which certainly operate as a sufficient bounty, besides the one which is granted on exportation; still we make no progress in this branch of manufacture in Great Britain; on the contrary it is upon the decline, if we are to judge by the official value of British manufactured linens exported in the following years, which were in

1797	£.756738	1801	£.1009194
1798	1102507	1802	895156
1799	1115305	1803	561310
1800	807572		

To judge more distinctly of its state the last three years, the following is an account of the quantity of British and Irish linens exported from Great Britain; distinguishing the linens manufactured in Great Britain and Ireland respectively, from the union to the 5th of January 1804; and distinguishing each year.

Linen exported from Great Britain

British linen—in 1801,	42245 pieces,	18347705 yards.
1802,	39438	16495045
1803,	33500	9993354
Irish linen—in 1801,		5516523
1802,		4503122
1803,		3117884

It may be said, that the great falling off in the exportation of 1803, was owing to the equipping of our army, navy, and volunteers: it may partly be so, but nevertheless the linen manufacture is upon the decline in Great Britain; the principal cause may be attributed to the unprecedented rapid advance of the cotton manufacture; in which the capital, labour, and attention of the manufacturers are employed, encouraged by the fashion of the times; still, if we pursue that, we ought not to neglect, but cultivate the linen manufacture at the same time; it is a branch of which we cannot be deprived, whilst that of cotton we may. It requires consideration, if the present advantage in the manufacturing of cotton will in the end compensate for the loss we may sustain by neglecting the linen manufacture, but we should secure both: the raw material of one we can raise within ourselves, but not the other.

Besides this, in a rich country, where capital abounds, business that can be carried on with little capital seldom thrives; wealthy people will not so generally vest capital in a business like the linen; where they come in competition with poorer manufactures, with single looms of weavers working in their own houses. If linen required dressing, dying, &c. like wool, or machinery like cotton, poor men could not do it, and then wealthy men would more generally enter into that trade.

Whilst we are upon the subject of cotton, to shew still stronger how it has supplanted the linen manufacture, we will enter into a few observations.

No manufacture ever had so rapid a rise, or attained so great a height in so short a time as that of cotton: so late as the year 1783, the whole manufacture in England was then estimated at only £.960000 sterling; a few years ago the quantity manufactured was estimated at thirteen millions of pounds weight, last year, no less than fifty-six million of pounds. Within the last eight years, its increase has been most astonishing: to illustrate it the more, we have stated the official value of the raw cotton-wool imported, and that which has been exported;

likewise the cotton manufactured, and that in the yarn exported: the following is the statement.

	1797	1798	1799	1800	1801	1802	1803
Cotton, raw, imptd.	735596	999921	1226811	1663375	1788856	2002309	1777371
exptd.	27166	22241	28972	177144	70633	161525	60917
Remained in Britain	708430	977680	1179839	1486231	1718223	1840784	1716454
Cotton manufac- tured, exported }	2446144	3544280	5556554	5323834	6465173	7130904	6487198
Cotton yarn, do.	20175	77235	302734	528014	476106	536031	744250
Cotton & yarn expd.	2466319	3621515	5859288	5651848	6941279	7666935	7211448
Profit and labour, besides what is ma- nufactured and consumed. }	1757889	2643835	4661449	4165617	5223056	5826151	5494994

Notwithstanding we have the means of carrying on the linen manufacture to any extent, our importation of foreign linens is upon the increase, as will appear from the official value of the quantity imported, and of that again exported.

	1797	1798	1799	1800	1801	1802	1803
Foreign linen impd.	1794211	1750176	2226751	1742835	1695329	2056755	1641626
expd.	313758	533478	904876	508826	587392	441774	267550
Consumed	1480453	1216698	2321875	1234009	1107937	1614981	1374076

The importation of foreign linen into Great Britain is chiefly to England, the duty on which, in 1804, was 208802*l.* 2*s.* 3*d.* and into Scotland only 7271*l.* 16*s.* 9*d.* from the latter kingdom the chief part if not all is re-exported by the western ports.

The above is the official value, which, upon the average of the last five years, amounts to £.1,350,000, England alone consumes in foreign linens; but if we reckon the real money paid, or the first cost, according to the exchange, it will fall little short of three millions sterling; an object of national consideration indeed, for an article we can so well produce within ourselves.

If we had not lands to raise the flax, hands to work it, nor mechanical facilities to spin the yarn, it would be excusable to import linens; but when we have such uncultivated large fertile tracts, on one hand, and a million of poor hands unemployed, on the other, it is a national consideration worthy the exertion of the landed interest, in a double fold degree, to bring their

waste lands into cultivation, to reduce the poor's rates, and encourage industry.

The linen manufacture is of the greatest consequence to this country, and one which ought more particularly to be cultivated; the great success of the cotton trade, makes the manufacturers overlook the advantages of pursuing that of linen, although they have in their favour, not only high duties on foreign linen imported, but bounties on the exportation of what they manufacture.

It has been mentioned before, and it is somewhat curious, that in the early part of our commercial intercourse with Russia,* we exported to that country, our coarse linen cloths, and that we should now import such considerable quantities of linens from thence; this is turning the tables upon us, and ought to make us reflect seriously.

In Prussia, the linen manufacture has become one of the first importance in that kingdom, as well as throughout Germany; and for the use of manufacturers who will turn their attention to linen, a particular description has been given of the German linens, specifying the length, breadth, the marks, manner of making up, and the countries to which they are chiefly exported. Some further details will be found of the linen manufacture, under the heads of Russia and Prussia, interesting to those who wish to promote the linen manufacture of this kingdom. Notwithstanding the lower price of the raw materials and labour in those countries, compared with what it is in ours, still the greater capital and length of credit, would, in ordinary cases, give us a decided preference; so that when we add to this, the abbreviation of labour by mechanism, now brought to perfection in this country, we have nothing to fear from foreign competition, if we are active, for we can undersell them. As we have got the complete monopoly of manufacturing our own sail-cloth, so as to export largely, the same success may be expected in respect to linens in general, from which we might expect to derive so large a profit, in industry, as 3,000,000*l.* sterling per annum.

The spinning of flax into linen yarn by machinery upon nearly the same principle as cotton, has been found to make the yarn more even, and equally strong, as that spun by hand: already considerable quantities of cloth have been made from yarn spun in this manner; the cloth is found so excellent, that

* In treating of the linen manufactures of that country, vol. i. 19th line, page 83, read *manufacture* for "exportation."

it cannot be distinguished from the foreign they have imitated, excepting that it is better. The manufactures at Leeds and Darlington, and several other places, have so completely succeeded, that we may shortly expect to see them general throughout the country; therefore, those who now embark in the manufacturing of linen, will completely have established their reputation, and secure the consequent profit, by the time others see the advantage.

The woollen trade never would have flourished in this country, had it not been in a most special manner encouraged and protected, and in particular by raising and preventing the exportation of the raw material. By what fatality is it then, that in this enlightened age, we neglect to do, or are ignorant of what was done in the remote times of Edward III? Let us cultivate in abundance the material, and encourage the manufacture and application of machinery, and there is no doubt, but that the linen trade will become amongst one of the best in the kingdom.

Of all the manufactures that exist, none deserves encouragement so much as the linen; the simplicity of the apparatus, and the smallness of the stock, make it a branch capable of being carried on, either by the poor, who are at present a burthen on the public, or by others, at spare times, when they would otherwise be idle; so that the whole will almost be clear gain, not as labour turned from another channel, but as labour arising from time, that otherwise would not be occupied at all.

If we consider with how few manufactures this is the case, we shall the more readily, and the more highly appreciate that of linen.

CHAPTER X.

Conclusion. Importance of the Subject to all Ranks of Society. Recapitulation of what is to be done, the Manner of doing it, and the Necessity of doing it soon.

HAVING now laid before the reader the most important documents that can be procured, relative to the subject, in order to ascertain the present state of Great Britain, and its trade, as connected with the continent of Europe at this time; taking also a view of what has passed, and the means by which things have been brought to their present situation, it only remains to form a general conclusion.

It must appear abundantly evident to every one, that unless our exports to the continent of Europe are continued to their present extent, the internal manufactures, and the East and West India produce, will be diminished in their sale; indeed, the latter will become of little farther value to us than merely for our home consumption.

Every person to whom the mercantile prosperity of this country is dear, in whatever line he may be, will either be directly or indirectly affected by the decrease of this trade, and that in the most sensible and disagreeable manner. But the evil is by no means confined to the mercantile and manufacturing interests; for, as we have seen that our landed property increased in value with our mercantile prosperity, it will not ultimately feel a less shock; on the contrary, it will, though the last, be the most severely felt; for the origin of all other sorts of wealth is such, that the proprietor may transport them to another country, or change the application; or, even if he does not, he finds some mitigation in his sufferings, from the diminished value of the produce of the earth.

The industrious man may be at a loss, and will be so, no doubt; but, as numbers will go away, and necessity will compel others to change their occupation, the industry of a country will bring itself to a level. As to merchants themselves, with

their capitals, they may suffer; but speculation is their business; and, to find the most beneficial employment for it, and alter their conduct and residence, if necessary, is the very essence of their nature. And let us not amuse ourselves with thinking that nature will ever change. No! men will act according to their situation, and, as that changes, they may appear to change; but that is only apparent, and, so far from being real, it is a proof that they remain essentially the same. They continue to make the best of their situation, and that is remaining to act from the same principle.

When capital found its best employment in Italy and Flanders, it centred in Italy and Flanders; when it found a better employment in Portugal and Holland, (for the Portuguese ruined the Italians, and the Dutch supplanted the Flemings), it was most abundant in those latter countries; but it has left them and gone to other places; and it would return again, if it could find its former advantage.

The proprietor of land alone can neither sell his property to advantage, nor carry it with him into another country: he must abide by the fate of his own, and therefore he is most of all concerned in its prosperity.

Extensive as the operation of this effect is thus described to be, yet still we have not traced its furthest bounds. If the revenue department of the country had remained upon a moderate scale, and we had not increased our public expenditure in the full proportion to our means of supporting it; to return to poverty would be the extent of the evil of the decay of commerce; we might then have found a remedy in economy, but, as matters are, we can have no such resource; for private economy makes public poverty in a situation like ours, and then a derangement of finances would take place, that would terminate in a total change in the present order of things.

One of the most profound thinking men of the present age,* gave it as his decided opinion, as his maxim in cases of importance, “that, with regard to a general state of things growing out of
“events and causes already known in the gross, there is no
“piety in the fraud that covers its true nature or disguises
“danger, because nothing but erroneous resolutions can arise
“from false representations. Those measures which, in common cases, might be available, in more serious ones, are of
“no utility. That the effort may be in a proportion to the exigence, it is fit that it should be known: known in its quality,

* Mr. Burke.

“ in its extent, and in all the circumstances which attend it.” Upon this principle of action, the truth and validity of which are not to be disputed or held in doubt, it is, that we speak plainly and distinctly of the consequences which would result from neglecting our national prosperity.

In this affair there is one great consolation, that at present the case, with respect to this nation, is a suppositious one, and we hope will remain so; but this hope is founded on the expectation that a general effort will be made for that purpose.

As it is however within the range of human possibilities that external causes, over which we can have no control, may deprive us in a great degree of the only channels that now remain; we find a necessity of looking out for the sole means we shall then have for preventing the evil from having its full effect.

It will be too late however to apply to our internal resources, after the external ones are gone. There will be too long an interval, during which we may lose the means of executing our intentions, we ought therefore now to prepare for every event. The matter is far too important to leave any thing to chance.

Those who feel our present situation may think this an useless precaution, but let such persons be asked what would have been the event, if Lord Nelson had not been successful at Copenhagen in 1801, and as would have infallibly been the case, if the powers of the north had proceeded to actual hostilities; we should at any rate have lost the whole of our trade to Germany, Russia, Prussia, Denmark, Sweden; and even the Elbe, the Weser, and the Ems, would have been shut against us. At the same time, our expenses would have been greatly increased: yet we escaped all this by a sort of miracle; at least we may fairly be said to have escaped it, contrary to the natural course of things. Our seamen were brave, and Lord Nelson was more than brave; he acted with the most amazing address on the most critical occasion, joining the promptitude natural to his profession with all the talents necessary for negotiation. To such a union of uncommon circumstances did Britain owe her escape from a great danger. But granting all that, which indeed may well be granted, for it cannot be denied, it may be supposed, perhaps, a similar thing can never again occur: it is to be hoped, indeed, that it never will. But, when we recollect that the battle of Copenhagen took place in less than two years after the Russians had fought on our side in Holland, what certainty can there be, that such a change may not again take place. If the prosperity of England were held by no better

tenure, the affairs of the country would indeed be in a situation to create dismay. In order, however, to prevent such jealousies as those in which the armed neutrality originated, we have plainly demonstrated to the northern nations that the victory of Copenhagen was full as much for the advantage of the northern powers as for ours. They had mistaken their true interest and were saved from the evil consequences that would have been the result, contrary to their own inclination.

While we do not disguise, but try to impress upon the government and individuals of this nation, the importance of continental commerce, we have been no less eager to shew the nations of the north that to them its preservation is still more essential; and that, if by any circumstance whatever, we are deprived of that trade, the evil may in a great measure be remedied, by cultivating those resources which we have within ourselves.

The only part of our imports that we could produce, with any sort of advantage, at home, consist of the articles brought from those northern nations; it is therefore peculiarly fortunate, that if the disaster does come by their means, it is at their expense that it will find a remedy.*

Hitherto the arduous and successful wars in which Great Britain has lately been engaged, her foreign possessions, foreign commerce, and external resources, have absorbed her sole attention; whilst she has neglected those at home, and suffered them to lie inactive.

If, with a prodigious establishment and heavy burthens, our commerce should be lifeless, we have the happy prospect of its being compensated; that is by bringing into action those national resources, with in ourselves, which we have been pointing out with care and attention.

The objects then recommended for attention and encouragement, and for facilitating this object, are arranged under the following heads:

1. The removal of every inconveniency and obstacle that is in the way of commerce to the continent of Europe, by the Baltic Sea, by Holstein, Hamburg, Bremen, and Embden.

2. By taking effectual means of convincing the Northern powers, that they are more interested in keeping up a good correspondence than ourselves; and that whatever injures the

* The government of the United States of America, though but young in experience, and certainly with much less to apprehend from war, take every means to encourage the production, within itself, of all the articles necessary for carrying it on. They have been very successful, and things are in that situation. that if they really were to go to war, they would not be at any loss on that account.

commerce of Great Britain, must, in the end, fall heavy upon them. This fact, plainly stated, would be better, and more advantageous to all parties, than that stern and severe diplomatic style, which has for its basis a sort of imaginary dignity, that leads to menace rather than persuasion, which sets as great a value on small objects as great, measuring them by a point of honour, and not by the real importance.

3. By guarding against the evil consequences of an interruption to the commerce of the continent of Europe, by way of the Baltic Sea, &c. by cultivating our internal resources, not only in order to decrease our imports, and augment our wealth by means within our own power, but that we may, in case of war with them, not depend on foreign aid for those articles, which are essentially necessary for carrying it on.

In regard to the first object, there are many things wanted, which individual merchants cannot do, and which government ought to look to. The inconveniences and difficulties in the way of trade in new channels are always great, but sometimes they are removed by degrees, sometimes by a general contribution, such as where there are regulated companies; but in this case, the current of trade is turned into new channels so suddenly, that much is wanted, that cannot be procured in the usual way. Individual merchants cannot do what is necessary; there can be no general contribution for public purposes, as in the case of regulated companies; the government, therefore, ought to see to it, by sending over agents with sufficient means to procure facilities, and by instructing the ambassadors to assist with their influence.

There is no doubt, that, in the course of time, if trade continues in its present channels, Holstein and the country through which it passes, will offer more commodious means; but, in the interim, there will be great loss, arising from interruption, and from trade being less than it otherwise would be; for it will not be denied, that all the difficulties in the way of any branch of commerce lessen its amount. Whether the expenses might not be reimbursed, by some duty on the goods or not, may be a secondary consideration. The first is to procure the necessary facilities and accommodation; the expense would be but trifling, and the advantage great.

This being done in the first instance, and care taken to make their true interests manifest to the courts of the North, nothing more could remain for the British government to do in the way of favouring that commerce; for the distribution in the interior must be left to individual intelligence and enterprise

as usual; but what is here pointed out, ought to be done immediately and without delay.

These things being done, the cultivation of our interior resources is what remains as the great object of attention, which we shall briefly recapitulate.

Considering the small extent of the United Kingdom, its great population, its great and extended commerce and possessions, its unrivalled fleets and powerful armies, it will appear astonishing to foreigners, that we have suffered our internal riches and resources to lie so long dormant. We have only 74 millions of acres in the United Kingdom, of which about 30 million acres susceptible of improvement, are yet lying waste. Supposing only the half of these lands to be cultivated, they will with other resources that may be brought into activity, secure to the nation upwards of 20 millions annually, by producing articles of the first necessity for our food, clothing, and carrying on our domestic and external commerce, and maintaining our distant possessions.

A capital of a moderate nature, judiciously applied, would, in a few years, bring this quantity of land into cultivation, and, at the same time, be a permanent source of revenue to government, whilst it would be of the greatest individual advantage, upon an easy and simple principle, without risk of loss, or danger of miscarriage in the execution.

Grain has not cost the nation, in the last ten years, less than 3,500,000*l.* per annum, the amount of which would, in that time, have cultivated half of the waste lands in the kingdom; and the capital with interest would have been refunded and have remained in the country.

Hemp and flax, rough and manufactured, the former in cordage and other articles, the latter into yarn and linens, produce about six millions and a half sterling.

One million seven hundred thousand pounds we annually pay for tallow, an article capable of being supplied from the produce of the fisheries, (by oil), if they were established and encouraged upon a good plan followed up with national energy. The produce of the fisheries, exclusive of our domestic advantages would give us a balance of one million sterling from abroad; besides the profit our shipping would derive from the freight, and the nation, from the nursery for seamen.

For timber we are annually paying to foreigners about one million and a half sterling per annum, imported in their own ships; all which might be brought from our own plantations in America; employ our own shipping, promote the nursery for seamen, and throw the freight amongst individuals of the nation.

Iron is an article we have, on the average of the last seven years, imported to the amount of 7000000*l.* sterling, which we can abundantly produce at home, from our inexhaustible mines of ore, and having plenty of coal, yet we still allow other nations to pour in upon us their produce, at higher prices than we now manufacture it.

The poor in England and Wales receiving parochial relief are nearly one eighth part of the population. In eighteen years, the poor's rates have doubled, and are now risen to 5200000*l.* per annum, whilst there are articles of industry, the produce of which, arising from their labour, would exceed the sum above stated. It is found by experience, that all raw materials, purchased hitherto for their employment, have been nearly doubled by their labour.

The official or rated Value of the undermentioned Articles, imported into Great Britain, from all Parts, for five Years, and the average rated Amount thereof, likewise the estimated Value, in the first Cost, we have actually paid to other Countries.

ARTICLES.	1799	1800	1801	1802	1803	Rated value average of five years.	Estimated first cost upon the average of five years.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Corn	1097702	2673046	3032278	1159670	935657	1780070	3500000
Flax, rough	828401	804938	530328	529973	575123	653752	1300000
Hemp, rough	630620	498924	630173	360147	606596	545292	1600000
Iron	382128	308174	273418	429547	377734	354180	700000
Linen	1321875	1234009	1107937	1614981	1374076	1330575	2500000
Linseed	105170	131697	84191	132753	116877	114137	500000
Tallow	497768	450854	352406	604805	583641	499095	1700000
Tar	166311	99580	92996	86567	187176	126526	* 300000
Wood	466068	629881	566785	433455	489428	515923	1500000
Yard linen	525367	505978	423214	417829	375398	449557	500000
	6021410	6839081	7893726	5369626	5621706	6368607	14100000

In return, the nations from whence we have chiefly received the above produce, viz. Russia, Prussia, Sweden, and Denmark, according to the average of the same period, have not taken more than for about 1200000*l.* in British produce and manufactures, and about 1300000*l.* in East and West India produce, and of every sort of merchandise; together not above 2500000*l.*

Supposing that we raised or created the raw materials and established the manufactures of the above articles, within our-

* Pitch is included in the estimated, though not in the rated, value.

selves, reckoning the price according to the average first cost of the last five years, which we have paid to foreign nations (the duty, freight, insurance, and charges not being considered, because they circulate chiefly at home), then the national advantage would be :

To be raised at home annually instead of being imported.

Corn	-	-	-	£. 3500000
Flax, 20000 tons, rough, at 65 $\frac{1}{2}$ l. per ton			£. 1300000	
4000 tons, spun into linen yarn, not reckoning the labour			260000	
4000 tons weight in various kinds of linen			260000	
				1820000
Linseed from the above flax, 336000 quarters, at 40s. per quarter				672000
Hemp, 40000 tons of all sorts, wrought or unwrought at the average of 40 $\frac{1}{2}$ l. per ton				1600000
Hempseed, 400000 quarters, at 20s. per quarter				400000
Linens, estimated to be imported for			3000000	
Deduct value already estimated for flax, and over-estimate of linens			500000	
				2500000
Iron	-	-	-	700000
Total value of what we can actually produce at home; that we now import from abroad (except hempseed, which we do not import)				11192000

To be created.

Oil.—Of tallow we have imported 1700000 $\frac{1}{2}$ l. from which deduct 400000 $\frac{1}{2}$ l. value of the hempseed only, above stated, then remains to be produced by our fisheries.			1300000	
Fish to be caught and cured for exportation, besides home consumption			1000000	
By the cultivation of waste lands			5000000	
Total				7300000

To be saved.

Freights paid at the lowest to foreign ships, for wood and other articles in which B. shipping might be employed			1000000	
Poor's rates to be saved by the labour of the poor			5200000	
				6200000
By bringing national resources and industry into effect, there might annually be raised, created, and saved, in the nation, nearly the sum of				24692000
Timber is not reckoned time required, before it can become a resource, would be considerable, but in the end might be estimated at				1500000
				£. 26192000

What we can actually produce, being diffused throughout the United Kingdom, would occasion a far greater consumption of our own manufactures than we export to the nations from whence we draw those articles, and every class of the community would be benefitted; at the same time the revenue of government would be more productive and secure, the national industry less liable to interruption, the population restrained from emigration, and the empire increased in strength and independence.

As it is more than probable that this is the very moment when our enemy is about to push us to the utmost exertion; and as the continental powers have not yet shewn that they conceive the nature of this contest to be what it really is, a struggle for the preservation of the independence of Europe, Britain has not a moment to lose in adopting every means in her power of prolonging and increasing her national prosperity; or, at least, rendering herself independent, in respect to her means of defence, and preparing for every evil that can come from without, by the encouragement of industry and interior resources within.

England has long been increasing in importance, as a political, a commercial, and a military nation; consequently, public business of every sort has become more difficult to conduct, on account both of its greater intricacy and extent. The establishments for conducting those sorts of affairs have not, however, been altered, extended, or modified, according to the nature of the case, and the increase of national business.

It is not necessary either to enter into a minute criticism of what exists, or an elaborate detail of what should exist; but a few general remarks, it is presumed will not be deemed superfluous.

The same persons, who conduct the main business of government, have not time for the details of boards and for particular purposes; and they have too much weight and authority, when they do assist, to admit of that freedom of discussion, without which no advantage can be derived from different opinions.

It follows, then, that boards for particular purposes of national prosperity, should be composed of men who are not great leading men in the government of the country, but rather of those who are competent to execute the object, men who are known to possess a particular degree of knowledge, integrity and activity.

There should be a greater number of boards, and they should arrange their labours so that men high in office could form a judgment from their united efforts, for, it is clear, that, ultimately, on such men must depend the execution.

Although government has not employed commercial men, because an idea is not entertained that their habits and views might have a particular bias, there is reason to think that in departments where commercial knowledge is wanted, they are the fittest; and this we will be bold to say, that, in every case, the man fittest for a situation of importance ought to be put into it, without any other consideration than that of his fitness.

It was by adopting this rule, that Peter the Great, and Frederick the Great, raised the importance of, and improved their countries.

There ought also to be some mode fixed for rewarding those persons who propose plans that are adopted, and really beneficial. The proof of this may be found in the law of patents, under which, spinning machines, steam-engines, and most of those inventions have been produced, that have raised this country so high as a manufacturing people. And in the premiums proposed by the society for the encouragement of arts, and by literary bodies, in cases where the invention itself does not reward the inventor; and, finally, in the rewards offered and given by government, in some particular cases, such as for the discovery of longitude, or any great approximation towards it.

At present there is no reward.—Men of merit do not like to become dependent on the will of a minister; and a minister is generally too liberal to wish them to become so. At present, the means which are, for the most part, necessary to obtain remuneration, are too often revolting and disagreeable to both the protector and the protected.

It must, in fairness to ministers, be allowed, that they frequently have not easily the means of remuneration. In countries where governments are arbitrary, this is different, and they have so far a considerable advantage. We might, on the contrary, have an advantage over them; for the proposer of a good plan, if adopted, should be entitled to make a claim, and that should be settled fairly by an award, or some easy and fair means, that would be readily practised. In short, there ought, in wisdom and in equity, to be a general regulation for doing, whenever a case occurs, what is only now done upon particular occasions, with great expense and trouble. To speak plain, acts of parliament will not do for every particular case. Secret service money ought only to go for services that require secrecy, and a minister has no discretionary power in giving money from any other fund. This matter should be arranged carefully and soon; ministers should have funds at their disposal; in disposing of which their power should be discretionary, but under a reasonable degree of responsibility. This would put England more upon a footing with other nations, or, rather, it would increase that superiority which she has already obtained, and preserve her power and wealth, on a foundation too secure ever to be shaken.

THE END.



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Oddy, Joshua Jepson

European commerce, shewing new and secure channels of trade with the continent of Europe detailing the produce, manufactures, and commerce, of Russia, Prussia, Sweden, Denmark, and Germany; as well as the trade of the rivers Elbe, Weser, and Ems ; with a general view of the trade, navigation, produce, and manufactures of the United Kingdom of Great Britain & Bd.: 2

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